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Youth, Communication and Libraries

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*Youth, Communication, and
Libraries*

Youth, Communication and Libraries

Papers Presented Before the Library
Institute at the University of Chicago
August 11-16, 1947

EDITED BY

FRANCES HENNE, ALICE BROOKS

RUTH ERSTED

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Preface

ALTHOUGH various aspects of library work with children and young people have been discussed in papers presented at former Institutes of the Graduate Library School, the first Institute devoted completely to a consideration of this type of library service took place during August, 1947, and had as its theme, YOUTH, COMMUNICATION, AND LIBRARIES.

Since the subjects of youth, communication, and libraries for youth are each represented by a considerable body of knowledge and by an extensive literature, no effort was made in planning the Institute to attempt any complete coverage of these areas. In selecting the topics for discussion the chairmen of the Institute emphasized the following aspects: recent developments in education and in communication that have particularly significant implications for library service to youth; problems relating to the use and critical analysis of materials of communication; new concepts about the objectives and functions of libraries for children and young people as agencies of communication; evaluations of the extent to which these objectives and functions are now being achieved, including a consideration of the kinds of planning needed to effect their full realization; and reports of new and outstanding activities in the field of library service for youth, illustrated by examples of successful practice. The PROCEEDINGS of the Institute, therefore, in no sense constitute an overall picture or description of library service to children and young people in this country today; they do present, however, discussions and descriptions of some current critical issues, some significant recent developments, and some new directions of library work with youth.

The arrangement of the papers in the PROCEEDINGS follows essentially that of the program of the Institute and consists of three main parts: "Youth and the Communication of Ideas," "Materials of Communication for Youth," and "Libraries for Youth as Agencies of Communication."

The three papers in "Part I" form keynote chapters in that they present background material necessary for the complete interpreta-

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tion of many of the subsequent papers; too, they are primarily concerned with the general areas of youth and communication. Recent developments in the field of education have been many and significant and all have implications for library work with children and young people. However, these obviously could not all be reported on within the framework of the Institute, and it was decided that an analysis of those principles which form the basis of the many school programs emphasizing the developmental tasks of children and young people would be most directly relevant to the theme of the Institute. The first paper thus describes these needs of youth, all of which vitally affect or, indeed, shape the objectives and functions of the library, and it stresses those developmental tasks which are related to communication. The second paper, "Communication and Youth," presents a synthesis of the elements that comprise the area of communication, with particular reference to print and to the reading of youth. Any realistic description or evaluation of the library as an agency of communication must be made in terms of the basic principles of communication. Further consideration of the characteristics of youth and of communication is presented in the third paper, which is concentrated on the subject of the motion picture and radio program as mass media of communication.

"Part II" contains five papers on the materials of communication and publishing for youth. To select only a few significant topics from among the many that could be discussed profitably posed no easy task; those finally determined upon for inclusion in the program deal with various critical problems confronting librarians in the selection and use of materials, and with some recently developed methods for the analysis and evaluation of materials.

The papers in "Part III" pertain directly to the library for youth as an agency of communication. Here are presented an analysis of the ever-pressing problem of making library service accessible to all children and young people in this country, descriptions of successful library service for youth in schools and in public libraries, appraisals of the techniques used in the evaluation of library service, and a report on library conditions for children and young people in Europe, based on impressions made in a short trip to that continent. The final paper is, in the main, a summary of those statements made at the Institute that have marked implications for future trends in the

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development of effective library service to children and young people.

The chairmen present no brief to the effect that, during the Institute, answers were neatly provided for all the many problems now facing librarians working with youth. Although the chairmen do not subscribe to every statement contained in the PROCEEDINGS, it is their belief that the thoughtful analyses of the problems made by the participants not only furnished needed facts and interpretations but also provided a stimulus and a challenge. Although the various methods suggested and the different viewpoints represented were not always in agreement, the general consensus did prevail that effective planning and performance of library service for youth in this country depend upon a general understanding on the part of librarians of all the factors involved in such service, upon an unbiased examination of these factors, and upon opportunities for librarians to plan and to work together objectively toward the achievement of the best kind of library service for children and young people. Problems of library work with youth, however, did not dominate the Institute. The reports on new developments and the descriptions of successful library programs were both numerous and provocative. From the papers presented at the Institute, from the formal and informal discussions that took place there, and from the activities carried on in hundreds of libraries for children and young people in schools and public libraries all over the country, one can assume validly that many librarians working with youth are performing services of a high order and that their contribution to children, to young people, and to society represents no small measure. Despite, or perhaps because of, this gratifying picture, the cold facts present themselves that for the country as a whole much remains to be done to provide good library service for youth.

One of the major objectives of the Institute is reflected only indirectly in the papers. The chairmen of the Institute and many librarians in schools and public libraries throughout the country felt keenly that the time was particularly opportune for a group meeting of this kind for librarians working with children and young people—a meeting where, through objective discussions and appraisals of mutual interests and problems, common understandings could be established and activities for immediate and long-range planning could be formulated cooperatively. In the discussions which followed

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the presentation of the papers, in informal group meetings, and in other ways, this objective of the Institute was achieved to a rewarding degree. The evidence is abundant that through the medium of meetings of this type, which bring together people in many kinds of library positions and from all parts of the nation and which cover a period of time sufficient enough to permit lengthy discussions, both formal and informal, positive values can be obtained that contribute to the development of library service to youth. The Graduate Library School hopes that it may have the privilege of holding similar meetings in the near future.

The chairmen wish to express again their gratitude to the participants who wrote and presented the papers at the Institute; to the people who came from twenty-six states and Canada to attend the Institute and who, through their interest and their part in the discussions, contributed greatly to the success of the Institute; to Dilla MacBean, who led demonstration and discussion groups on recordings and transcriptions for children and young people; to Helen Robinson and her staff who conducted tours of the Reading Clinic and explained the work done there; and to Mary Katherine Eakin, Nina Mills, and Ruth Thomas for many things too numerous to mention.

FRANCES HENNE

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Chairmen of the Institute

GRADUATE LIBRARY SCHOOL
UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

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PART ONE

*Youth and the Communication
of Ideas*

The Developmental Tasks of Children and Young People

STEPHEN M. COREY AND VIRGIL E. HERRICK

MOST HUMAN beings constantly struggle with the task of growing up. Our twenty-first birthdays provide no mystic termination of this striving. Throughout our lifetimes we try to become increasingly mature in our intellectual and social behavior, to gain increased recognition from those whose judgments we respect, and to find out more about this person who walks around within our physical body and who responds to our name.

While it is true that adults work constantly at becoming more mature, the problem is particularly critical and dramatic for children and young people. That is why those of us who are interested in the effects of communication upon children and youth, and the extent to which young people can be served by libraries, want to know as much as possible about the way in which boys and girls develop and mature.

DEFINITION OF DEVELOPMENTAL TASKS

It has become increasingly common, especially at the University of Chicago, to study children in terms of what are called their "developmental tasks." This term may be unknown to some, but the concept has proved to be very useful. One generally accepted definition of developmental tasks is: "the learnings that the child needs and desires to accomplish because of his emerging capacities for action and relationship, because of the demands and expectations of his family and society, and because of the progressive clarification and directive power of his own interests, attitudes, values and aspirations."¹

What this definition means is that a young person growing up in any culture, faces more or less constantly certain lessons that he *must* learn. These required lessons result from the interaction between the

¹Robert Havighurst, Written Memoranda to Committee on Teacher Training Program, The University of Chicago, 1945.

child's maturing body and the pressures of his social and physical environment. These learnings are essential in the sense that they are necessary for a reasonably adequate life as a person—a life that is happy and that results in effective and satisfying membership in a social group.

This use of the term "developmental tasks" to describe the lessons children learn as they grow up does not mean brand new wine in brand new bottles. The concept is closely related to earlier notions about individual and social needs, interests, and drives. The chief advantage in talking about developmental tasks is that it focuses attention on what the individual is trying to accomplish rather than postulating some inner drive or need which is very difficult to define. The developmental task, too, allows for observation of behavior in a total dynamic context without artificial distinctions between physical, mental, social, and emotional aspects of growth.

It is always necessary, of course, to guard against the possible error of believing that the youngster who is growing up realizes the developmental tasks he is trying to achieve. Frequently the individual himself may not be aware of the task with which he is struggling or which he has recently accomplished. So far, children themselves have not made any study of their own developmental tasks. Everything that has been reported represents the inferences of adults, and it is dangerous for older people to assume that they know the essence of the problems with which younger persons are coping.

SOME ILLUSTRATIVE DEVELOPMENTAL TASKS

The definition of developmental tasks can be considerably clarified by a description of some of the most common tasks that are faced during various periods of growth. The remainder of this paper is devoted to such descriptions and to a brief statement of some general characteristics of all developmental tasks.

One of the important developmental lessons children and youth must learn is the important one of creating for themselves a more infallible system of security. This illustrates a task which is achieved by coping successfully with a whole series of more specific learnings. The young child at first tends to find security in his parents and in other adult relationships. As he extends his social contacts and comes to school, he quickly discovers that his parents are fallible, and that

his peers not only fail to provide him with security but many times are actually dangerous to him. He becomes, too, increasingly aware of the degree to which the adults he knows depend for their security upon certain ideas of God, and of right and wrong. The child tries to adapt these ideas to his own life and social behavior, and he has a great deal of difficulty. A youngster's interest in Superman and in all sorts of similar fantasy may be only his efforts to explore a world where social and physical realities are not threatening and where he can with some safety search for rules, ideas, and conceptions of himself which will provide him with a more comfortable and safe existence. Every child must work out for himself the major dimensions of his world and see what really makes it work.

Another developmental task, the importance of which is underestimated, is faced by the child when he first comes to school. All of us have watched some child struggling with this adjustment. Frequently for the first time, he is faced with the problem of finding out how to win his place in a group. He must learn that his personal significance depends on what he is able to do in a relatively impersonal situation. He must accept the fact that school is a place where he has to share his adult world with many other children.

Some boys and girls make this transition from home to school without much difficulty. Others seem to be baffled by what goes on in kindergarten and first grade. They try many bizarre kinds of behavior in an effort to find in this new social environment the same place they had in the circle of the family's affection.

In the primary grades, too, some children first meet the mysterious and ubiquitous written symbol so dear to teachers. Many a child, until he reaches kindergarten, has never been expected to put on his own rubbers and coat, and to refrain from taking things not his own. He must not lie. He must "mind" adults. The school is a place where one has to learn to make specific inferences from such vague generalizations as "keep out of danger when crossing the street." Even if the generalization is further specified by the warning, "look both ways," the matter of crossing a street always remains a specific experience to a child.

At about the second grade the child begins to work more intensively at the task of moving from a society primarily adult-centered to a child-centered peer society. Here he becomes engaged in working out

his role and status values with his own age mates. Many teachers who follow their children for more than one year become disturbed when they note that children who cultivated them in the first grade in order to find an adult in the school situation who would assume the role of their mother, now are not quite as "nice" as they were the year previous. This developmental task of finding his role in the peer group becomes increasingly complicated as the child adds to it the tasks of seeing more clearly his own sex role in relation to others of his own sex, to the opposite sex, and to his prospective adult life.

Some of the other developmental tasks of early childhood are:

1. Achieving skill and competence in motor control and coordination
The young child must learn to walk, run, control his bowels and bladder, eat whole foods, and use his fine muscles.
2. Achieving independence in caring for himself as an individual
Here he must dress and undress himself, feed himself, get and put away his toys, and use the toilet independently.
3. Achieving rhythm of living according to the culture imposed upon him
In American middle-class culture this means the child must eat three meals a day, sleep at regulated hours, and play at play times.
4. Learning the process of belonging to and becoming a member of the family and the social group
Before he leaves for school, the typical child has learned to recognize himself and recognize other individuals, as adults, siblings, or peers, and to accept his role in the family.
5. Learning to give as well as receive affection
As he works at this task the child seeks emotional stability and security of mutual expression.
6. Learning communication and symbolization from jargon to words
The young child learns to progress from words to phrases, phrases to sentences. He increases his ability to understand larger units of language, such as the point to a story.
7. Achieving emotional release through sensory experiences
Preschool children come to enjoy feeling, seeing, smelling, tasting, and hearing. They begin to develop an aesthetic sense.
8. Learning the realities of the physical and social world
Small boys and girls learn the names and nature of many inanimate and animate objects, such as pets.
9. Learning to discriminate, to generalize, and to make judgments
The ability to form concepts to solve one's daily problems, to be-

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come a thinking person, has its beginning very early in life.

10. Internalizing and accepting rules; developing a conscience
In early childhood, boys and girls learn some of the accepted "stop and go" patterns. They make distinctions between right and wrong. They develop some respect for authority, reliance on themselves to follow rules.
11. Identifying self to adults and accepting intellectually and emotionally the fact of sex

DEVELOPMENTAL TASKS OF LATER CHILDHOOD

The major developmental tasks of later childhood are in the main extensions of those of the earlier period. To these, however, are added the special "lessons" required by the school. Of critical importance to the child at this stage is the demand for increased competency in the use of language, particularly in the handling of written symbols. It is at this period that books become available to him personally and provide an important means for exploring and testing the ramifications of his world.

Some of the important developmental tasks of later childhood are:

1. Broadening the concept of self
Prior to the time the child enters school, he has examined his social self only in relation to his family and small play groups. In school he is forced to expand this social consciousness to groups of twenty-five to thirty-five children, organized much more formally and impersonally to achieve definite purposes.
2. Establishing and maintaining a role in the peer group
The egocentric adult-centered world of early childhood expands now to include groups of peers with rules, aspirations, and controls somewhat different from the world directed by his family and teacher. This release of relationships becomes increasingly important to the child as he moves toward adolescence.
3. Gaining independence from adults
As the prestige and power of the peer group grows, the child is also engaged in the process of weaning himself from his dependence on adults. This task is important to his continued success in the first two tasks mentioned.
4. Developing further the sex role and sense of sexual modesty
The fact that Johnny is a boy and Mary is a girl becomes increasingly important, although in the early periods of the school boy-girl relationships are many and extremely complex. As children move toward

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adolescence, there are fewer and fewer boy-girl relationships in peer groups and more and more boy-boy, girl-girl contacts. At the same time, even in the fifth and sixth grades, while boys and girls would not be seen with the opposite sex in school, they may have opposite sex friends at home and in the community.

5. Developing further the physical skills

This period is characterized by rapid increase in motor coordination and the ability to make finer and finer muscular discriminations. Also the general energy output tends to increase.

6. Broadening and deepening of intellectual concepts and value systems

It is on this task that the most noticeable gains are made during later childhood. The child is developing the elements of his value system, testing out many important concepts of distance, time, quantity, and relationships—concepts which he will continue to expand and develop for the rest of his life.

7. Developing intellectual skills and techniques of communication

Here the skills involved in the arts of language, use of resources, and testing and use of data are developing under the guidance and direction of the school and community. We know, too, that the values as well as the procedures used by the home, school, play groups, and community organizations in aiding the child to move along in his area of development are often in conflict.

DEVELOPMENTAL TASKS OF ADOLESCENCE

Among the more important developmental tasks that adolescents face are the following:

1. Coming to terms with their own bodies

During early adolescence, most young people seem to be very much aware of their own bodies. The reasons for the heightened consciousness of self at this age are numerous. First, it is during late preadolescence that changes occur in the proportion, structure, and functions of the human body that are oft times startling. Second personal appearance is of great significance in adolescent society. Young people learn quickly that the way their bodies look does have significance not only for courtship and the eventual selection of a mate, which is a bit far off for adolescents, but also in connection with many other types of social achievement.

2. Learning new relationships to their age mates

Adolescents must acquire many new attitudes, skills, and understandings as they work out a new sort of social relationship to their

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age mates of both sexes. Few things are more important than acceptance by their group. The isolates are excruciatingly unhappy, at least until some adjustment is worked out which usually involves escape to books or movies or hobbies or adult society. Preadolescent groups are usually single sex groups with boys and girls somewhat contemptuous of one another. It is during adolescence that young people must learn how to be attractive to the opposite sex. In middle-class society, this problem is a difficult one. A large number of boys and girls in high school spend most of their time working at it.

3. Achieving independence from parents

This task probably causes parents even more difficulty than it does their sons and daughters. The fact is, though, that children must learn a new relationship to their fathers and mothers if they are to achieve complete adulthood. This new relationship is one which involves mutual affection and respect *without dependence*. In some cultures the adolescent's experience as he breaks away from his family is less traumatic. In a modern industrial society, however, social change is so rapid that the new generation usually has quite different standards of acceptable behavior from those that govern its parents.

4. Achieving adult social and economic status

The obligation of our young people to behave like adults and eventually to accept the social and economic responsibilities of adults defines a developmental task that baffles many of them. This adjustment gets complicated at regular intervals by our economic system.

5. Acquiring self-confidence and a system of values

To have self-confidence and the attendant self-respect is of great importance to adolescents. Consequently, they are constantly testing themselves out. The boys want to find out if they have courage and resourcefulness. Girls also seek adventure, not only to test the limits of their environment, but to find out what they can do successfully.

This quick description of the developmental tasks for the various growth periods should emphasize their continuity. Many tasks are common to more than one period, such as developing a concept of self, learning sex roles, learning to get along with age mates, achieving independence from parents and adults, developing more infallible bases for security, developing intellectual skills and techniques of communication, and broadening and deepening intellectual concepts while the general task remains relatively constant.

The specific manifestations of these general developmental tasks and the periods of their critical importance to the child vary widely

during the different growth periods of his life. This accounts for much of the difficulty parents and teachers have in making good judgments about the relative importance of behavior which may be greatly annoying to them at that time. The loud voices, exuberant outbursts of behavior, table manners, unwashed faces, uncombed hair, and dirty, smudgy papers of preadolescents are irritating to all who have to work with them. At the same time, anyone, who is aware of the developmental tasks that are important to preadolescents, is likely to have some sympathy for their present behavior and great hopes for future improvement.

Another problem involved in the persistence of many of the general developmental tasks is the danger of mistaking each new phase of a given task for an entirely new task. This error is less apt to be made by those who recognize the inherent consistency and continuity of development. One who has watched an adolescent girl trying out her new selves in her mirror and on her long-suffering parents and brothers and sisters, is strongly tempted to conclude that this behavior is unique to the adolescent period. This conclusion does not take into account the girl's more or less continuous attempts to try herself out in the permissive, acceptive environment of her own home and circle of friends. The adolescent girl's antics before the mirror are related both to her previous and future behavior. The girl's success with her past development of self makes the present exploration possible. Her success in dealing with the present will allow her to go on. Many librarians recognize the opportunity literature provides for self-explorations of this kind. We know that this girl has many other means of communication than those customarily learned in school and related to language alone. We know, too, that such means of communication are as important, if not more so, to her future as those involving the written and spoken word.

GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF DEVELOPMENTAL TASKS

This discussion of some of the major developmental tasks of children and youth does not begin to cover everything that young people must learn. It is quite likely, too, that any present list of tasks will be revised extensively in the next few years as more complete information is gained about children and adolescents. For these reasons, it behooves us to give attention to some of the common

characteristics of developmental tasks. Each one has much in common with the others.²

1. Developmental Tasks Are Necessary Learnings.—Each of the developmental tasks that has been discussed briefly represents a lesson that must be learned at least to some degree of mastery. There is no choice if the individual is to make a relatively normal, wholesome, and acceptable adjustment to his culture. The boy or girl who fails to learn one of these developmental lessons in ways that conform, at least approximately, to the standards of his cultural group, is punished in various ways. The punishment may be calculated and overt, as in the case of persons who learn to engage in unorthodox sex practices, or it may be subjective, like the anxiety of the chronic coward.

The frustrations of a woman who as an adolescent girl and, for one reason or another, later in life did not break away from her mother, but restructured the original child-parent relationship, is one illustration of the consequences of a failure to achieve an important adolescent developmental task. The relationship of an adult daughter to her mother should involve mutual affection and mutual regard, but not constant personal dependence of either party on the other. Our culture places a premium on a relatively well-knit family life. But it also literally forces a family to disintegrate eventually in order that its young members can strike out on their own.

2. Developmental Tasks Must Be Learned Within Restricted Time Periods.—Because young people achieve successive stages in their maturity at roughly the same chronological age, and because their culture expects them to learn various developmental lessons at much the same time, educational and social patterns have provided for learning what must be learned during a relatively restricted time interval. This is quite satisfactory in the case of most individuals. Difficulty arises, however, when one person lives through the period when opportunities are provided for particular developmental learnings without having acquired them. He then may find it almost impossible to get the sort of learning experience that he needs.

Through the social life of the high school, or of young people's

²See Stephen M. Corey, "The Developmental Tasks of Youth," in *The American High School*, Eighth Yearbook of the John Dewey Society (N.Y.: Harper, 1946), p. 70-99, especially the section on "Some General Characteristics of the Developmental Task," p. 84-91.

groups, or of neighborhood groups, adolescents have numerous opportunities to learn the techniques involved in courtship, choosing a mate, and reacting with propriety toward young people of the opposite sex. If a young man, because of parental influence, or because of an unusually high I.Q. and an interest in books and academic things, belittles and tends to avoid these opportunities provided during adolescence for learning courtship techniques, he is likely to be more or less handicapped in this regard for the rest of his life.

It should be borne in mind that while the sequence of developmental tasks is much the same for all children within a given cultural group, the time at which certain concerns occupy the attention of specific boys and girls varies. This is due to differences in rate of maturation, and also to differences in the impact of cultural influence.

3. Developmental Tasks Are Interdependent.—The child is working on more than one developmental task at one time, and there is a high degree of interrelationship existing among all tasks. Many times progress in one is blocked until a different lesson is learned to the point where it is possible for the first to continue. Similarly, progress on one task is frequently accompanied by progress all along the line. This is important to remember when considering specialized training for children and youth in the area of language and communication. Specific progress on these tasks cannot be pushed artificially too far beyond the development of other lessons perhaps more important to the child.

4. Developmental Tasks Involve Varied Types of Learning.—In order for boys and girls to acquire these necessary learnings or achieve these developmental tasks, they must change in many ways. Not only are there numerous facts and skills that must be learned, but many new concepts and generalizations are essential as well. Attitudes must be changed. All these changes, however, are means to an end. And the end is learning the lessons the culture requires—or, in other words, achieving the developmental task. Discerning teachers have learned that when the skills and concepts and attitudes implied by the school curriculum are meaningfully and rationally related in the minds of boys and girls to their developmental tasks, learning is rapid and tends to be permanent.

5. Their Developmental Tasks Define the Concerns of Children.—This fact has been implied above. Men and women who are interested

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in helping boys and girls grow up need to study and learn more about these required lessons, because working at them takes up most of the time of the children. Whatever is done by boys and girls is related in some fashion to their developmental tasks.

IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHERS AND LIBRARIANS

This fact, that most of their learning in school or out is a consequence of what children and young people feel must be done in order for them to accomplish developmental tasks, is most important. Each of these tasks can be stated in terms of certain goals that are sought by children. For example, the general developmental tasks of working out new relations with age mates of the same sex can be analyzed into a number of immediate goals, such as becoming a member of the play group in the back yard, or being elected to the captaincy of the football team or to the presidency of the high school sorority. Such goals represent a more or less limited objective, which, if achieved, contributes to the accomplishment of the larger tasks.

All that a teacher or librarian can do is to suggest to the child certain experiences, which in her judgment will help him attain the goals he is seeking. When the relationship between these suggested experiences and what the child wants is clear and reasonable in his judgment, he learns rapidly. And because he uses what he learns, he, in the language of the school, remembers.

Communication and Youth

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IN THE BRIGHT lexicon of youth there may not be the word "communication," but in the manifold behavior of youth, acts of communication have an important role. It is hardly an exaggeration to say that more time is spent by children and youth in exposure to the formal media of communication—print, radio, and film—than in any other class of activity; and above a certain age level this applies to the free, nonschool time of the child. Simply as a matter of time, then, reading, seeing, and listening to communication materials play a large part in the child's life.

Here I shall be concerned with communication through reading and primarily through free reading, not because listening and seeing are necessarily less important—as a matter of fact, they may take more of the child's free time—but because those communication processes are discussed elsewhere in this series of papers. It goes without saying, of course, that the subject of this paper can be treated here in only a limited and selective fashion. Some people spend their whole lives studying the problems of communication, and even more people, the problems of youth; thus any attempt to cover the field of communication *and* youth is bound to be partial.

THE MEANING OF COMMUNICATION

It is clear that by the term "youth" in this context we mean people from about six to eighteen years of age. It may not be as clear just what is meant by the term "communication." Somehow this word has increasingly found its way into respectable vocabularies during recent years, until the term, if not the field to which it refers, shows signs of becoming the latest fad in certain circles. This is neither desirable nor necessary; the term is useful simply to the extent that it denotes a class of human activities sufficiently delimited and important to represent a fruitful field of concern and interest. "Communication" means, generally, the transmission of symbols from a person or group of persons to another person or another group. This process operates

through various media of communication—through the public media (newspaper, radio, film, magazines, books, and some other minor media such as the lecture and the exhibit), and through the major private medium of conversation.

For purposes of general orientation as well as specific delimitation of my remarks, the major divisions in the field of communication might be reviewed. Such divisions are described most succinctly in the classical formulation: who says what to whom, how, with what effect. That brief sentence—who says what to whom, how, with what effect—contains within it the basic classification of the field. First, there is control (the *who*) which has to do with the various cultural and personal conditions behind the production of communication materials, such as the economic structure of the communication industries, the role of the government in regulating the media, the nature of the people who produce communication materials, the influences which make writers write as they do and publishers publish as they do, and other such factors responsible for the production of communication in our society. In this Institute the paper on the publication of books for youth falls within this area. Second, there is the content of communication (the *what*) which is concerned with the various kinds of stimuli contained in communications as indices both to the intent of the communicators and to the effect upon the consumers of communications. The paper on the developmental values contained in books and parts of other papers deal with this aspect of communication. Third, there is the audience (the *to whom*) which is primarily concerned with answering the question who reads, sees, and listens to what, where the “who” is defined in terms of the various characteristics which distinguish one group of people from another. Parts of several papers, including the present one, contain material on this topic. Fourth, there are the channels of communication (the *how*) which have to do not only with the several methods of distributing communications—and here fall the several papers on the particular role of the public library and the school library—but also with the relative effectiveness of various ways of communicating to people—and here the papers on motion pictures, radio programs, and audio-visual materials are located. Finally, there is the most important area of all, that of effect. This area addresses itself to the most significant—and most embarrassing—question: the

“so what?” question. What difference does it make to individuals or groups that all this communication takes place? What are the effects upon (i.e., changes in) behavior, attitude and opinion, mores and folkways, moral and political values, aesthetic standards and taste, psychological states, or anything else? The papers dealing with the therapeutic values of books and the role of print in effecting inter-group understanding pertain to this particular phase of communication. It is in this area, too, that the major part of my remarks will fall.

THE IMPORTANCE OF COMMUNICATION FOR YOUTH

I have defined the terms “youth” and “communication,” as they are to be understood in my remarks. It remains for me to define the third, and in a sense, the most important word in the title—the term “and.” This statement is not meant altogether facetiously. One could talk at some length about the problems of youth *or* about the problems of communication in isolation from each other—and, parenthetically, I think that has been one of our deficiencies—but it is when one tries to put the two together that one meets the major problems. In this formulation, the “and” contains the substance of the matter; it covers the sociopsychological functions which communication serves for youth. It would be much easier to talk about communication for half of this paper and then about youth for the other half, and let the “and” merely represent proximity, than describe the pervasive, elaborate, subtle, varying relationship between the two. Yet it is just this relationship which calls for discussion and to which this paper is addressed. In other words, whatever definition the crucial “and” has here is contained in the rest of this talk.

Communication is substantially important in the lives of youth. The participation of youth in the communication process may be considered even more important than that of adults for at least three reasons. In the first place, they probably are exposed to communications more than adults; they almost certainly read more. Thus, in sheer quantitative terms, they simply have more opportunities to be influenced by communications and more specifically by print. In the second place, they are probably more impressionable than adults; that is, they are psychically more flexible and malleable. They change faster and oftener. Thus the same amount of communication materials is more likely to have an effect upon them than upon adults.

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And in the third place, the communication behavior of children and youth is especially important because the child is father to the youth and the youth is father to the man. The more one studies adults in a variety of areas the more one finds that, for adequate explanations of adult behavior, one is forced back into the earlier years of their lives. Not only is the basic personality pattern of the individual formed during the early years, but the youth comes to the threshold of adulthood with a whole set of firmly held convictions about the nature of the world. He has a set of moral values, of social and cultural beliefs, and even of political opinions which are not easily subject to change thereafter, and particularly not under the impact of communication stimuli alone. It is only to the extent that such beliefs can be affected during the more formative years through the communication process that a basic contribution will be made to the later years.

Thus the problems of communication and youth are fundamental not only from the standpoint of the youth themselves, but also from the standpoint of preparation for adulthood. The establishment of "good" reading and communication patterns is important not only for the sake of the children and young people in 1947, but also for the sake of all of us in the 1960's. In some degree the extension and improvement of basic cultural values, aesthetic, moral, political, social, psychological, for today and tomorrow are dependent upon sound communication practices among children and young people. If this is true, then the people responsible for the establishment and maintenance of such practices, teachers, librarians, parents, students of communication and youth, have a critical job.

VARIOUS USES AND EFFECTS OF COMMUNICATION

What is the nature of this critical job? Is it to get the nonreaders among children and young people to read more? Not necessarily. Is it to get the readers to read more? Possibly not. Is it to get children and young people to improve their reading in terms of literary standards? Partly, but not exclusively and perhaps not primarily. Is it to get them to read fewer of the materials they want to read and more of the materials that teachers, librarians, and parents think they ought to read? Again, perhaps not. These questions serve to introduce my major theme: the reading of children and young people should not be considered in isolation as a "good" in itself, but must be consid-

ered within a more inclusive framework providing the criteria for the analysis and the evaluation of such reading. Moreover this framework should have a different orientation from the one usually applied.

There is nothing particularly novel about this contention, but it needs to be emphasized. Most responsible adults would insist that of course they do not think that reading itself is a good thing, but many of them still *act* as though they did think so. The efforts of teachers and parents and, I fear, librarians to get Johnny to read or to get him to read as much as Jimmy are cases in point. For various reasons, reading and books, along with their halos, are classified on the side of the angels in our society. Examination of the contents of some books and of the results of some reading often suggests a classification elsewhere. Reading has to be good *for* something before it can be good.

That brings in the matter of the framework of evaluation; generally, this has been, and perhaps still is, elaborated in literary and educational terms. In other words, reading and books have been judged by certain aesthetic standards of quality or in terms of formal educational standards. That framework of criteria is important and necessary, but so is the framework of social and psychological criteria, which has been undervalued, or at any rate underused. More attention should be given to the evaluation of reading in terms of such categories as emotional adjustment or value formation as against such categories as "good writing" and vocabulary building. It is interesting to note, incidentally, that this formulation takes the side of the children; for example, most adults strongly oppose the reading of comic books because they are such "bad literature," whereas most children read them and thus satisfy certain psychological needs. The analysis and the evaluation of the reading of children and young people against social-psychological criteria constitute the major problem. This point may be elaborated in terms of some major problems concerning communication and youth.

PSYCHOLOGICAL EFFECTS OF READING

First, consider certain relations between the reading of children and young people on the one hand, and their psychological state on the other. This area is of particular importance because children and young people, at least in the middle years, read mainly for emo-

tional expression and satisfaction rather than for information and knowledge. At this time, the child experiences many contradictions, conflicts, and tensions. Through reading it is often possible for him in one way or another to resolve, or at least minimize, such conflicts and thus to gain a certain measure of psychic relief. Undoubtedly a major part of the child's motivations to read derives from such psychological bases and undoubtedly a large part of children's reading serves that function. In this connection, it may not be altogether irrelevant to note that the overwhelming majority of children's free reading—over 80 per cent, according to many studies—is fiction, a higher proportion even than for adults. This statement is not meant to suggest, of course, that there is a one-to-one correspondence here, but it can be safely said that the majority of motives for reading such publications can be classified under the provision of emotional gratification.

One area in the psychological use of communications centers upon violence in books and aggressiveness in children. Freudian psychology (and other modern child psychology) has brought us a long way from believing in the poet's "pure" child, who came trailing clouds of glory. Anyone who doubts that children and young people experience feelings of aggression toward their teachers, their parents, and their fellows need only watch them in action. Indeed, reading itself is a partial index to this condition. Witness the heavy component of violence in the most popular reading materials at various ages, fairy tales, comic books, adventure, crime, and detective stories, not to mention similar materials in children's radio programs. Not only is such communication content among the most widely read materials; it is also among the most intensely read. Whether we like it or not, many children want to read such materials, they are absorbed in them, and they would object strenuously to relinquishing them. There can be no doubt that such material exercises a strong attraction upon certain children, or that it is psychologically valuable for them. And if such reading does tend to relieve certain aggressive feelings—to abreact the child—then why should some of us not like it? Here is at least one area in which the vicarious or symbolic expression of basic psychological needs is altogether appropriate and desirable. In schools, homes, churches, and many other places the culture teaches young people to inhibit or repress many of their

tendencies; and if some of these can then be expressed with no harm to others, through reading, then that would appear to be a commendable circumstance. It seems better to have Johnny relieve his aggressive feelings by taking them out on the villain in the story than on his younger brother. The main problem here, of course, is to find out just how and to what extent this process actually operates. Under what conditions is it more or less effective? For example, perhaps such reading can discharge minor feelings of aggression, but will only intensify the major ones. For what kinds of children is it effective? What kinds use it to excess? Do children show any evidence of progression in this use of reading? What are the content characteristics most appropriate for such reading? In this connection, it must be recognized that just the opposite may occur, and in some cases it undoubtedly does; that is, the reading of materials of this kind may stimulate aggressive feelings rather than relieve them. The identification of the conditions under which it does so, is obviously basic. In brief, here is a major area in children's reading—in the effects of children's reading—to which inadequate research attention has been given. We were raised in a violent world and we are raising our children in an even more violent one. The least we can do is to control or manipulate some of the stimuli of violence which come to the attention of children and young people to the end of enabling them to live calmer and freer lives.

Another significant psychological problem in this area has to do with the use of reading, or other communication, to provide sources of identification which bolster the child's sense of prestige, power, and general affectional levels. Our society demands a relatively high level of performance and success from its young, but does not always provide opportunities for the realization of that level. Children and young people who in their real life are not strong enough, or brave enough, or bright enough, or successful enough, or loved enough—or who feel that they are not, which amounts to the same thing—can sometimes, to some extent and duration, repair such psychic lacks through reading. There is at least some evidence to support the belief that such identification occurs, and that such motivation is responsible for it. Several studies have documented the fact of identification and some aspects of its nature. The studies agree on a few basic points. In the first place, many young readers do identify with

fictional characters¹ (although it is often not precisely clear just what is meant by identification). Secondly, such identification is selective; that is, it does not proceed by chance nor does it automatically correspond to the major characters. The child's identification derives from his predispositions—the kind of person he is. In this selective process the child identifies with fictional characters in conformity with his own personality or his own needs. He identifies most frequently with characters who are like himself in some regard. Thirdly, whether this means as one writer claims, that “fiction can only stimulate what is already there, even though in a latent form”² (a formulation which seems plausible enough but which by definition leaves little room for alternatives), it does seem clear that children and young people derive gratification from their reading by expanding their egos, in the technical sense, to include the fictional characters they read about.³ Such identifications, it should be noted, are not always based upon such similarities as sex and age. One provocative analysis attributes the emotional attraction of certain popular children's fiction to the correspondence between the child's psychological problems and the themes or situations in the book.⁴ Thus the recurrent theme of the salvation of the “bad” adult through the goodness of the child has an obvious psychological gratification for children. So does the characterization of fictional heroes and heroines in extreme black-and-white terms. Less obvious, but not altogether irrelevant, is the observation that many popular books for children and

¹Graham Foulds, “The Child's Response to Fictional Characters and Its Relationship to Personality Traits,” *Character and Personality*, XI (1942), 64-75; Eleanor Robb, “An Analysis of the Factors Determining the Extent to Which the Adolescent Girl Identifies Herself With Fictional Characters” (Master's thesis, Western Reserve University, 1935); Henry C. Meckel, “An Exploratory Study of Responses of Adolescent Pupils to Situations in a Novel” (Unpublished doctor's dissertation, University of Chicago, 1946); Marjorie Fiske and Katherine Wolf, “The Children Talk About Comics” (Manuscript to be published, Bureau of Applied Social Research, Columbia University); A. F. Watts, *The Language and Mental Development of Children* (London: Harrap, 1944).

²Foulds, *op. cit.*, p.75.

³Although this is true, it should be recognized that there are limitations to the intensity and duration of such identification. One extensive study of the personification of ideals among children, conducted by asking them whom they would most like to resemble, revealed that only about 3 per cent of them mentioned characters from fiction. However, nearly 60 per cent of the personifications were historical and public characters many of whom, of course, were brought to the attention of children through reading. For a full account of this study, see David Spence Hill, “Personification of Ideals by Urban Children,” *Journal of Social Psychology*, I (1930), 379-393.

⁴Kate Friedlaender, “Children's Books and Their Function in Latency and Pre-puberty,” *American Imago*, III (1942), 129-150.

young people contain a nontypical family situation in which only one of the parents is living, usually the one of the opposite sex. Books of this sort, and other kinds of stories as well, can contribute to the child's psychological health and development. Just as "the fairy tale, when appropriate to the particular development of the child, can definitely help it in overcoming its conflict . . . [so other books] represent a faithful mirror of the conflict corresponding to the child's age."⁵

Identification with fictional characters takes place; it is selective in terms of the child's own characteristics and problems; and such reading may help the child resolve some of his personal conflicts.⁶ But there is more to the matter than that. In moderation, such reading apparently supplies something that is lacking in the child's real life and hence provides him with constructive channels for development and growth. In excess, however, such reading may have less desirable effects. Here we encounter the overworked but necessary term, "escape." It is one thing to remove oneself from the real world for a time, into a pleasanter world of dreams and fantasies in which one takes on a higher status and a greater stature, all with the end of recreating oneself for more productive activity in the real world on one's real problems, but removing oneself to the world of fantasy as an easy and constant escape from this harsh one, is quite another. It is obvious that the major objectives sought in such reading—prestige, affection—simply cannot be satisfactorily provided by it; they are gratified only by people, real people. There are many things which reading can do, but there are some things which it cannot, such as successfully substituting for genuine affection and deference from the immediate environment. Nothing but intimate and warm personal relations can provide that. Attempting to solve this need through reading not only is certain to fail, but also may have its own undesirable influences upon the child's personality. It is an extremely valuable experience for a child (or an adult, for that matter) to live with books; it is quite another thing to live *in* them.

Excessive or unwise reading of this character may obscure or even obstruct the realization of what I take to be a basic objective in chil-

⁵*Ibid.*, p.138, 145.

⁶For a revealing analysis of the utility of fantasy materials in the "reading" of the preschool child, see Martha Wolfenstein, "The Impact of a Children's Story on Mothers and Children," *Modern Children's Stories*, Research Study No. 1. Monograph of the Society for Research in Child Development, XI, Serial No. 42, No. 1, 1946 [Washington: The Society, 1947].

dren's reading, namely, improvement of the child's capacity for critical evaluation of the world in which he must live. If reading is used to "solve" the problems of reality through avoidance rather than to solve them through understanding and direct attack, it is performing an undesirable communication function for children and young people. In this connection, it is necessary to realize that the constant use of reading for this purpose probably indicates a definite problem area within the personality of the child. Failure in the social sphere is interpreted as failure of the self, and reading is used to build the self up again through identification with powerful and courageous heroes. In such cases, the problem lies within the child and it is a real question whether this process really works.

This leads into a more general problem in the area relating reading to the psychological state of the reader, which is the contribution of reading to the adjustment or maladjustment of the child. By adjustment we mean the minimization or absence of tensions, conflicts, and anxieties. Here again there is much that reading can do and much that it cannot; and here, too, reading may have positively detrimental influences upon the adjustment of the child to his fellows and his own world.

... Fantasy has its dangers which should be recognized and not overlooked. Fantasy is harmful under two conditions: (1) when it is based on anxiety, and (2) when it becomes an end in itself. . . . Now it is well known that the satisfaction of fantasy is never as real or as completely rewarding as real experience. . . . The person, then, who evades real experience in order to indulge in fantasy is failing to gain the richest and most complete satisfactions of life. Fantasy may be thought of as an escape from real experiences and accomplishments. He who builds himself up too much in fantasy may meet disillusionment in the real world. . . . Another danger in fantasy is that it may isolate a person socially. . . . It has been seen that it is the lonesome child who tends to indulge in unwholesome fantasy.⁷

In this connection, some children undoubtedly read too much. By doing so, they minimize the normal personal contacts with their fellows which would be of particular value for them; some children would be much better off on the playground than in a library. In addition, they learn to fortify themselves in a fantasy world of their

⁷Percival M. Symonds, *The Dynamics of Human Adjustment* (N.Y.: Appleton-Century, 1946), p.513-14.

own selection, though not of their own making. This last is not unimportant; the same children who are encouraged by adults to read and read more are discouraged by them from daydreaming. In the daydream, however, the child has to create his own fantasies and take a certain amount of responsibility for them, whereas in reading they are supplied easily and seductively by the books themselves, and with a substantial amount of adult approval and sanction as well. (Whether the content of the fantasy world of the book is any richer, or more varied, or generally of better quality than the fantasy world of the child's mind, I would not venture to say.) A major and serious effect of this tendency is the increasing withdrawal of the excessive reader into his world of books; into himself and away from the world in which he has to live. The problem seems vital for investigation; there is already some suggestive and partial evidence at hand. In an intensive study of children's reading of comic books, the authors found that although the moderate reader uses comics rationally and functionally for the strengthening of his ego—"comics, for the moderate reader, facilitate normal development"⁸—the comic book *fans* tend to be maladjusted children. They are the ones who, disturbed by the complexity and contradiction of the world, and insecure in their own place in it, turn to symbolic material which offers them comfort, success, power, status.⁹ In another study of delinquent children, it was found that the delinquents read more than, and about the same kind of books as, the control group:

Our investigation of reading interests gave surprising returns as we compared the delinquents and control. Evidently, considerably more of the delinquents were fond of reading and were even said to be great readers. As far as we could gather, the specific types of reading engaged in were rather similar for the two groups—both preferring adventure stories of the type found in the cheaper magazines, but yet it was noted that some delinquents read more widely than this and enjoyed really good books.¹⁰

⁸Fiske and Wolf, *op. cit.*, p.54.

⁹In this connection it is interesting to note that this study found that comic book fans were predominantly poorly adjusted children but not badly adjusted. The authors suggest either that the badly adjusted may be too disturbed even to read comic books or that such reading provides the "bridge to reality" which keeps the poorly adjusted from becoming psychologically worse.

¹⁰William Healy and Augusta Bronner, *New Light on Delinquency and Its Treatment* (New Haven: Yale Univ. Pr., 1936), p.72.

Again, an extensive analysis of the reading of young people showed that "there is little relation between the quantity of reading done by individual pupils and the maturity of that reading. . . . We have frequently assumed that increase in sheer number of books read was a good thing. The evidence indicates that this increase in quantity may be accompanied by a continued immaturity of content."¹¹ Another study provided correlations between the amount of reading in childhood and adolescence, on the one hand, and actual achievement in adulthood, on the other. What were the reading patterns in earlier years of the "most successful" and the "least successful" in adult life among a group of gifted children? "In view of the superior school record of the A group [the most successful] it was surprising to find that a record of books read over a period of two months during 1922 [some 15 years earlier] showed a reliably larger amount of reading by the C's [the least successful]. . . . This difference also may reflect differences in social adjustment or at least in the intensity of social interests."¹² In view of these authors' conclusion that later achievement is partly a function of social adjustment, one senses a sort of spiral process in operation taking some such form as this: the less well-adjusted child, finding it somewhat difficult to get along with his peers, finds a happier home in books; this withdrawal makes personal relations somewhat more difficult, and so on. An analysis of a group of case studies dealing with children's reading came to exactly this conclusion:

Among the cases presented, the "escape" effect appeared most often during childhood and adolescence. As they approached adulthood the individuals were normally forced into some kind of social adjustment. . . . The significance of such reading seems to be its ineffectiveness in producing adjustment. There was no real solution of a problem, only a fleeing from it which made more difficult any adequate approach later. The lonely, unhappy, self-conscious children among these cases would lose themselves in books because they were already unadjusted and isolated. The reading, in turn, increased the maladjustment. . . . Whether or not the

¹¹Ralph W. Tyler, "The Study of Adolescent Reading by the Progressive Education Association," in Louis R. Wilson, ed., *Library Trends* (Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Pr., 1937), p.282-83.

¹²Lewis M. Terman and Melita Oden, "Correlates of Adult Achievement in the California Gifted Group," in *Intelligence: Its Nature and Nurture*, Thirty-ninth Yearbook of The National Society for the Study of Education, Part I (Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1940), p.80.

individuals were enriched by a new source of imagery, such enrichment could hardly be estimated until they became more at home in the world, and toward this such reading had little to offer.¹³

Thus the circular mechanism of dependent reading and personal adjustment was at work. As one of the subjects put it: "It was a vicious circle. The more I read the less at ease I was with companions. And the less at ease I was in company, the more I tended to shun it and seek solace in books, where one could lose himself completely without any restraint."¹⁴

This whole area can perhaps be summed up in terms of one basic value of children's reading. That value is the improvement of the child's capacity for the assessment of reality, on the assumption that the better able he is to evaluate reality and live with it, the better off he will be. It is obvious that reading may be of great aid here. However, it should also be recognized that some reading may make the child's realization of this objective more difficult. Overindulgence in fantasy materials represents one obstruction. Another, of course, is represented by reading materials which themselves contain distorted conceptions of the real world. For example, the disparity between the behavior of imperfect real people and perfect book people may stimulate or intensify the child's psychological conflicts rather than relieve them. As a matter of fact, this general concept can, and to my mind should, play a central role in the evaluation and guidance of children's reading. Parents, teachers, and librarians have always been concerned with the progression in reading, from books of poorer quality to books of better quality. Usually the term "quality" has been defined primarily in literary and aesthetic terms. I am suggesting that such progression might well be defined in terms of the contribution of his reading to the child's capacity to accept and to evaluate critically the real world, i.e., the capacity to understand it and to live in it.¹⁵

¹³Katherine Niles Lind, "The Social Psychology of Children's Reading," *American Journal of Sociology*, XLI (1935), 459.

¹⁴*Ibid.*

¹⁵There is some evidence that the normal child's moderate reading of comic books does show some such progression. From the reading of "fairy tale" comics centering upon humanized animals, the child moves into the "superman" stage, first accepting the invincible hero, but later coming to prefer the vulnerable hero. From this stage the child graduates into "true" and "classic" comics built around incidents of the "real" world. See Fiske and Wolf, *op. cit.*

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READING TO DEVELOP SOCIAL AND POLITICAL VALUES

To this point the discussion has centered on certain psychological categories which should be applied in evaluating the effects of children's reading. That does not mean that they are the *only* relevant social-psychological categories for this purpose. At least one other way of examining the effects of reading seems of crucial importance: that has to do with the formation of social and political values among children and young people.

As adults we carry the responsibility for the solution of basic political problems. As adults with a professional concern about communication and youth, we carry an additional responsibility for the preparation of children and young people to meet the political problems of their own generation. In the expectation that political problems will increase and intensify in their immediacy and importance—and on the assumption that our generation will leave a world for the next generation to operate—it is particularly relevant to inquire about the effect of the reading of children and young people upon the formation of their political values.

Whatever else one may think about the political future of this country or the world, it seems clear that what we know as liberal democratic values—that is, beliefs in social equality, individual freedom, democratic processes—will come increasingly under attack. If a sufficiently large proportion of the coming generation is to resist such attacks, they will need a firm base of conviction in democratic values. To this end reading can make a major contribution. It is generally recognized that communication can make for cleavages within society; everyone has been concerned at one time or another with the effects of propaganda. At the same time, of course, communication can make for consensus, and for democratic consensus, within a society.

More attention must be paid to just how this can be done. One hypothesis is that reading itself cannot create a belief in such values, but that it can make a substantial contribution to their development and maintenance. As with the psychological adjustment of the child, so his social and political values are formed in a context of direct personal relations. Used in conjunction with such relations, print can fulfill an important role. A more specific problem here, which can only be briefly mentioned, is the formation of young people's

opinions on controversial social issues. As already indicated, the more we study the formation of opinion among adults, the more we recognize the importance of attitudes on social issues which they brought with them to adulthood. Thus, to some extent the problem of why people hold the opinions they do is pushed back into the problem of why children and young people hold the opinions they do, and this brings us to the effect of reading upon opinion formation at this age level. Here is another criterion for evaluating children's reading.

There is another aspect of this problem which deals not with the formation of political values, but more modestly with the development of an interest and desire for participation in political matters (in the sense of an enlightened citizenry). No apology need be offered for a proposal for developing political consciousness—that is, consciousness about public affairs—in children and young people; quite the opposite. The conduct of their lives, and probably the lives themselves, are dependent upon political considerations, and increasingly so. The fact that children and young people do not choose much nonfiction in their free reading should not defeat us. Materials to develop political interest can be contained just as effectively in fiction, and probably more effectively. To the extent that it is not now available, fiction of this kind can be developed for children and young people. I say “children and young people” but I have in mind a particular group of them, namely, girls. All studies show that women are much less politically oriented and interested than men. This condition derives partly from the relative recency of women's suffrage, partly from the notion that “politics is not for women.” This tendency is reflected even in the data on communication exposure among youth: girls do not read as many books connected with politics as boys, they do not listen to serious programs on the air, they do not read the serious news columns in papers as much. This situation is undesirable; and responsible adults should do whatever they can to repair the balance and establish the single standard in this field.

In this general framework, the content of children's and young people's books has more relevance than is immediately or superficially apparent. The stimuli in such books may be hidden or obscured, but nonetheless pervasive and strong.¹⁶ For example, who are the

¹⁶For an analysis of the potential effects upon general value formation of certain curricular reading, see Irvin L. Child, Elmer H. Potter, and Estelle M. Levine, “Chil-

characters in children's fiction? Are they distributed more or less equally among the various social classes which compose the population, or are they predominantly members of the dominant social group?¹⁷ If, as seems likely, the majority of fictional characters represent a social class some levels above the class in which the typical readers actually live, then what does such reading do to the aspirations for and expectations of social mobility on the part of the readers? What does it do in terms of generalizing the particular values attaching to the dominant groups represented in the stories? Or to take another example: in their emphasis upon the abilities and exploits of heroic individuals, what is the effect of children's books in perpetuating an individualistic interpretation of action in which single individuals create and solve all problems and in which social forces are minimized, if indeed they exist at all? This stress upon individual rather than collective responsibility for social actions was noted in an analysis of the content of boys' weeklies in Britain:

[There is] no suggestion anywhere that there can be anything wrong with the system *as a system*; there are only individual misfortunes, which are generally due to somebody's wickedness and which can in any case be put right in the last chapter.¹⁸

The ramifications of this sort of analysis are nearly endless. What is the effect of the happy ending that pervades American publications for all age groups? What about the strong nationalism in a good part of children's literature in promoting nationalistic attitudes? In a world becoming increasingly militaristic and in which military men are filling many posts traditionally reserved for civilians, what is the contribution of children's literature in developing liberal and critical attitudes toward the military hero? Questions such as these can only be mentioned here; they seem to me to be of relevance and substance in considering the role of reading for children and young people. What I am suggesting is that the contribution of such reading to the

dren's Textbooks and Personality Development: An Exploration in the Social Psychology of Education," in *Psychological Monographs*, LX, No.3, Whole No. 279 (Washington: American Psychological Association, 1946).

¹⁷For an analysis relevant to this point, though not of children's literature, see Bernard Berelson and Patricia J. Salter, "Majority and Minority Americans: An Analysis of Magazine Fiction," *The Public Opinion Quarterly*, X (Summer 1946), 168-90.

¹⁸George Orwell, "Boys' Weeklies," in *Dickens, Dali, and Others* (N.Y.: Reynal & Hitchcock, 1946), p.109.

formation of basic values and political opinions is of basic importance as a criterion for the evaluation of such reading.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the first, and the obvious, thing to say is that more study of children's reading in these terms is needed. Research in this area will help to provide a guide for action. For this purpose research methods are at hand which, though not perfectly developed, are useful. Amazingly few case studies oriented upon the role of reading in the child's life have been collected and analyzed; that should be done. Practically no longitudinal analyses of children's reading through time have been made; they should be. Content analysis provides ways of identifying important stimuli in children's books; it should be used more.¹⁹ In short, the more we study the more we know; and the more we know the less we have to guess.

Reading is one kind of experience, and like other kinds it should be evaluated critically and with discrimination. The undoubted fact that some reading enriches and elevates should not blind one to the equally undoubted fact that some reading deteriorates and degrades. In order to apply such value judgments to reading, one must specify criteria on which to base one's judgment. In addition to (and *not* instead of) the literary and educational criteria which have been used, social-psychological criteria should be applied such as those referring to the child's social adjustment, his ability to assess reality critically, the formation and organization of his value system. The emphasis upon literary criteria is understandable simply in historical terms; most librarians and teachers of reading have had their own training in literary fields and very little in appropriate social science fields. They need more training in social psychology and such disciplines.

I can only end as I began, by paying tribute to the importance of this field. Among the most valuable of the natural resources with which we must build our world are the children and young people. Like other resources, they should not be wasted; they should be developed carefully, rationally, constructively. In such development, reading can play its role. Those charged with the guidance of such reading have an opportunity matched only by their responsibility.

¹⁹For a framework for such analysis, see Laurel Krieg, "A Suggested Method of Analyzing Children's Fiction Reading" (Unpublished master's thesis, Graduate Library School, University of Chicago, 1943).

Motion Pictures, Radio Programs, and Youth

PAUL F. LAZARSFELD

THE PURPOSE of this discussion is to speculate on what it means for our young people to listen to radio programs and see movies of the type that have developed in America. What is the place of such modern media of mass communication in the world of the young twentieth-century American?

We can hardly begin the task, however, before we have some conception of what this young American is like. We must not assume that because he is so close at hand we already know him. It is an accepted rule of the social sciences that we do not really understand things which we meet in everyday life unless we realize that they are not "natural," that they could be different and that in many other countries they are indeed different. We do not have to go far to find that for other people with a civilization quite similar to ours "youth" has a somewhat different connotation. A brief glance at prewar Germany will make that quite obvious.

In Germany, the leaders did not use the word "youngsters." They talked about youth with a capital "Y." They regarded the age period between fifteen and twenty-five as one of storm and stress. One waited for the unexpected to happen, and it often did. At the turn of the century, for instance, there developed the so-called youth movement which, by the beginning of the first World War, had become quite an important factor in public life. All over the country young people banded together in organizations which used rather revolutionary terminology. They talked about the class struggle of youth. They rebelled against the existing school system. They wanted to live their lives outside of the family fold and somehow they felt that once they had grown up, they would, together, build a better society.

Some of the members of this German youth movement, when they did grow older, created new and interesting types of schools so that

future young people could benefit from the new spirit at the beginning. Others went into the various political movements, and exerted considerable influence. Still others tried to develop political, social, and economic theories. A book has recently appeared which describes this development through the eyes of an American observer: Howard Becker's *German Youth—Bond or Free*. While some of his interpretations might be open to question, he has solved well the difficult task of conveying the strange and revealing atmosphere of the German youth movement.

It is indicative of the importance of this movement that German psychologists writing about adolescents between the two World Wars tend to identify the adolescent in general with the boys and girls in the German youth organizations. We will make some progress in our own discussion if we look for a moment at the writings of psychologists like Edward Spranger, Charlotte Buehler, and Siegfried Bernfeld.

Their theory, with minor variations, runs approximately as follows: There has developed in modern industrial life a discrepancy between the physiological and social growth of the individual. By and large, a person of fifteen or sixteen years is physically mature. He could have children and could do the work of an adult. Still, in the more well-to-do families, the young people are kept from exercising the functions of the physically mature. The mores forbid early marriages. Parents keep on making most of the major decisions and by sending the adolescents to schools shield them from many aspects of social reality.

As a result, these young people develop a mental world of their own. This is the period in which intense interest in ethical problems develops. This is the phase in which political and social issues must be settled by principles and not by compromise. This is the background against which new and radical ideas about art and literature develop. In other words, there have generated in the adolescent very strong tensions which cannot be discharged in the world of reality. They are, therefore, channeled into an intensified intellectual and cultural creativeness. One author has gone on to say that we live for the rest of our lives on the capital which we have accumulated in this period between the ages of fifteen and twenty-five.

To sum up this point, a somewhat technical formulation might

be permitted. Some psychologists speak in this connection of "sublimation." If our instincts and strong drives are blocked in a specific situation, we often accept, at least temporarily, substitute gratification. A boy who cannot get the girl of his desire might write poetry about her. Another who is blocked from conquering the world right away might develop an intense interest in engineering as an unconscious way of satisfying his power dreams. A third who cannot give way to his feelings of revolt against his father might become intensely interested in political affairs as a means of abolishing all tyranny. The period of adolescence develops new and very strong impulses in the growing individual. If they are blocked, then, under certain circumstances, this process of "sublimation" can set in. The impulses are transformed into intensive intellectual and cultural interests and activities. If later on, the adult makes a good personal adjustment, he remains for the rest of his life personally enriched by the period of storm and stress he has gone through.

Once we have turned our attention to the role of adolescent sublimation in a person's development we have opened a psychological approach to the topic of the present discussion. But youth and media of mass communication have a sociological aspect as well. It was suggested that the stream of ideas and interests which people develop in the course of their lives flows strongest in the age period of adolescence and postadolescence, in the ten years between fifteen and twenty-five. But we have not yet said anything about the kind of ideas with which they are likely to be concerned. While these will differ greatly from one person to another, their character and frequency depend to a large extent upon the phase of history and the particular social circumstances under which people are living.

A few hundred years ago all ideas were bound up with religious problems. At this moment they are more likely to be connected with political issues in a broad sense. Today, if one wishes young people to have ideals and to develop on a high intellectual plane, one has to expect that many of their sublimations will take on a strongly political tinge. This, rather than religious activity, is the course which their times prescribe for them. The direction which the intellectual activity of young people will take is thus to a large extent defined for them in advance.

To a certain degree, this channeling of activity into political causes

gives a person a more civilized mind and is generally good for the welfare of the community. But beyond that, it leads to fanaticism and has dangerous social consequences. Howard Becker has shown how close psychologically the relation was between the German youth movement and the Hitler guards. This leads to a serious problem to be discussed presently.

Not all German young people, of course, exhibited the intensive and creative type of adolescence to which we are referring here. For one thing, this occurrence was closely related to social position. The children of working-class families went to work at the age of fourteen and this undercut the foundation of a "protracted" adolescence. The young worker was socially grown up as soon as he started to earn his own living. Studies have shown that this is true in other respects also: the onset of social activity among the working-class youth was years earlier than among the youngsters of middle-class families who kept on going to school. Thus facts as well as theory restrict the type of adolescents we are discussing to one social group. Of course, even within this group there were undoubtedly numerous placid and unexciting transitions from childhood to adulthood, but it is the general situation that interests us here.

For our present purpose it is enough to have a vivid picture of the difference between the American situation and that of a foreign country like Germany. The picture can be particularly vivid because everyone in America is familiar with the self-dramatized adolescent and the manner in which we deal with him here. The rabid young idealist is a stock character in our theater, and he is often treated with a certain amused indulgence, but never with much real respect. He is never, never to be taken seriously. Somewhere in the third act he is apt to be reduced to tears to show his essential instability. The prestige that surrounds the European young idealist is quite lacking here. The local community does not look upon a display of "storm and stress" with expectant awe; they are more likely to consider it silly. It is a slightly amusing stage through which young people sometimes pass.

The treatment which the adolescent receives at the hands of his society reflects the concern which a country's citizens, young and old, have with social ideas. The degree of emphasis which such matters are given will determine to a large extent whether the young people

are to be encouraged or merely temporarily tolerated when they engage in political movements.

Certainly it is true that in Europe politics is a much more respectable field than in this country. Here language gives us a good clue. In practically every European country the words "politics" and "politician" do not have the bad connotation that they have in America. The word "politiker" in German means a statesman concerned with domestic rather than foreign affairs. In line with the greater prestige of politics indicated by this semantic difference, we find that young people in Europe have a much more intensive and more widespread interest in public life than American youngsters. In this country, it is only at the extreme left and the extreme right that we have a marked fusion of adolescent idealism with concrete political movements. It is only here that "politics" is generally used without the tinge of opprobrium.

It is true that modern education in America tries to develop the idea of civic responsibility, but here it is the teacher who tries to develop such a sense just as he tries to develop correct spelling and arithmetic habits. This is quite different from the situation in a typical youth movement where the political enthusiasm that permeates the whole atmosphere becomes the driving power for whatever concrete learning the young people are willing to do. This writer remembers vividly an episode which happened fifteen years ago when he had been in this country just a few weeks. He came in October and about a week before election day he made his first visit to the University of Rochester. Entering the first American campus he had ever seen, he saw a big sign on one of the dormitories: "Beat Hobart." He turned to his host and asked: "Is Hobart a Republican or a Democrat?" It took some time for a newly arrived European to understand that during election week the concern of the students was not with politics but with the hope that the University of Rochester would win the approaching football game.

Let me give you a comparable European example to illustrate the point. A picture in the *New York Times* some time ago shows a crowd of young people obviously celebrating an important event. Everyone is cheering and two or three of the youngsters are lifted on the shoulders of a few of the others. The picture was taken by a correspondent in Yugoslavia. There can be no doubt, for an American

reader, about what happened. These are Yugoslavian youngsters whose team has just won an important game. Thus the caption comes as a surprise: "These young people have worked as volunteers on a railroad to connect the inland of Yugoslavia with the open sea. They are celebrating the completion of the last mile." I do not really think that the feelings of these youngsters or their personal motivation are much different from that of those who are celebrating a victory over Hobart College. The intensity of effort and the depth of emotional participation are probably the same. Still when they decided to volunteer for this railroad work and when they heard its implication for the country discussed, they were in touch with ideas and perspectives which might well affect their own and their country's future.

Beyond this factor of the lack of emphasis which the socially significant problems receive, it is not difficult to speculate on some reasons why, in America, the age period between fifteen and twenty-five is somewhat less intensely politically oriented. The family structure is not authoritarian. Except in isolated cases, the American youngster would think it ridiculous to feel that an eternal class struggle was going on between himself and his elders. The schools also give much more opportunity for expression here than abroad. And finally, the whole atmosphere is permeated by a sense of opportunity. Young people on the European continent have for decades had the feeling that they were growing up in a pretty bad world and that they should do something about trying to change it. The American youngster is taught to feel that he will get ahead in the system as it is if he just makes intelligent use of his abilities.

One of the factors which undoubtedly plays a role in this whole situation is the American media of mass communication. Since I am dealing here mainly with movies and radio, let me give a few figures for general information. You can ask people how often they go to the movies, and while their answers might not be quite exact, the different surveys check each other well enough. A typical example is the evidence presented in Table I which was obtained from interviewing a national cross section of 2500 people above the age of twenty. The respondents in this survey were divided into three age groups—those below thirty years of age, those from thirty to fifty, and those older than fifty. A classification by education is also included. Each group was divided into those who went to grade school only,

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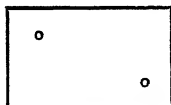
those who also went to high school, and, finally, those who had at least some college education.

This twofold classification deserves a general comment in the context of this discussion. As can be seen from the tables in this paper, the younger people have more education than the older people. This is a fact which comes out in all surveys and is due to the rapid development of the American school system in recent decades. Our population becomes increasingly more educated, but we will return to this point presently.

Now what does the following table show? For each of the nine

TABLE 1
PROPORTION OF PERSONS ATTENDING MOVIES FREQUENTLY
OR NEVER, BY AGE AND EDUCATION

	<i>Completed High School or More</i>	<i>Some High School</i>	<i>Grade School or Less</i>
20-29 years	52% 15%	47% 21%	41% 26%
30-49 years	28% 28%	34% 32%	23% 45%
50 years and over	18% 39%	9% 52%	11% 66%



Frequently (once a week or more)

Never (never or once a year)

groups of people we have distinguished, we give two figures. The one in the upper left-hand corner tells what proportion are avid movie goers, attending at least once a week. The one in the lower right-hand corner tells what proportion practically never go. In each column proceeding from top to bottom we can follow the change in habits from the younger to the older age groups. We find every time that the movie fans are found most frequently among the youngest age group and their numbers decline as people grow older. We have no respondents below the age of twenty in the sample, but other surveys have shown that movie attendance would be still heavier among younger people with the peak around the ages of eighteen or nineteen. (Going from left to right we find that in all age groups the people who had at most a grade school education are least likely to be among the movie fans and so give the largest number of non-movie goers. This is very probably due to the fact that in this group—the two last columns to the right—we have many farmers who do not live within easy reach of movie houses and poor city people who cannot afford movie attendance).

Now we do not know what particular movies these young people have attended, but we do know that the sort of film they can see is rather strictly prescribed. Very few American movies have anything to do with ideas or the current problems of the day. As a matter of fact, most movie producers are quite convinced that they should keep out of anything which is not strictly entertainment, and if they change their policy, Congress is likely to make sure that they do not "put ideas into the heads of young people."

It is not my business to discuss here what movies should or should not do, but the fact is that our table has shown how great a role movies play for young people and how little the movies obviously can contribute to what we have described as "sublimation" in the political and social sphere. As a matter of fact, the much-used word "escape" is very appropriate here. It is quite likely that young people go to the movies in order to relieve some of the tensions to which they are subject. And if such short-cut devices are used to relieve tensions, they obviously cannot at the same time be used as forces to develop cultural interests and activities.

A similar situation is found in the field of radio listening. Radio also is mainly an entertainment device, but there are always a

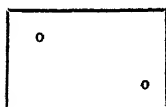
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number of serious programs, such as discussions of public affairs, available for people who care to listen to them.

We happen to know what the favorite programs are for the same 2500 respondents. Out of a long list we selected two types, the serious programs just mentioned and, for comparison, popular music. Results are shown for men and women separately in Tables 2 and 3. (This classification was not made in regard to movie attendance because our tabulations showed that there is not much difference between men and women as far as movie-going is concerned.)

TABLE 2
PROPORTION OF MALE EVENING RADIO LISTENERS PREFERRING POPULAR
AND DANCE MUSIC TO DISCUSSIONS OF PUBLIC ISSUES, BY AGE AND EDUCATION

	<i>Completed High School or More</i>	<i>Some High School</i>	<i>Grade School or Less</i>
20-29 years	81% 46%	61% 30%	x x
30-49 years	41% 53%	52% 49%	37% 33%
50 years and over	17% 61%	20% 61%	21% 45%



o Like to listen to popular and dance music

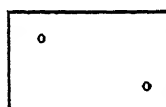
o Like to listen to talks and discussions about public issues

x — Not enough cases

YOUTH, COMMUNICATION, AND LIBRARIES

TABLE 3
PROPORTION OF FEMALE EVENING RADIO LISTENERS PREFERRED POPULAR
AND DANCE MUSIC TO DISCUSSIONS OF PUBLIC ISSUES, BY AGE AND EDUCATION

	<i>Completed High School or More</i>	<i>Some High School</i>	<i>Grade School or Less</i>
20-29 years	72% 31%	33% 15%	x x
30-49 years	48% 45%	52% 33%	46% 23%
50 years and over	22% 52%	23% 43%	24% 32%



Like to listen to popular and dance music

Like to listen to talks and discussions about public issues

x — Not enough cases

Here again the figures give a very clearcut picture. If we go down the columns, we can study the differences related to age. The figures for popular music are highest among the young people. The figures for public affairs programs are lowest and frequency of interest goes up with age. Thus even if a mass medium gives a certain amount of opportunity for serious consumption, the preference of the young people is for the lighter fare.

The whole picture can be summarized by Table 4. In the same survey all respondents were asked whether they considered radio

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exclusively as a medium of entertainment or whether they listened occasionally or even frequently to "serious or educational programs." (The respondents were asked not to think of news in this context.) About half of the sample stated that radio has only an entertainment function for them. Again we wanted to know how the various age groups differed. We set up the now familiar type of table by separating the three main educational groups. Reading each column from top to bottom, we find that in each educational group the younger the people, the more they stress the entertainment side of radio.

There probably exists here a rather complicated interaction between supply and demand. Not only the young people, but the whole radio audience prefers entertainment to serious programs. As a result, the broadcasters, who after all are in the business to make money, supply mainly entertainment programs. This in turn reinforces the tendency of the listeners to use the radio for entertainment purposes only.

With the idea of reinforcement, we have probably touched the core of the problem of youth and media of mass communication. For several reasons, American youth are fairly placid, not much different from adults in their interests and, among other things, not too much concerned with public affairs. This tendency is reinforced by the mass media. The movies and the type of radio programs which are

TABLE 4
PROPORTION OF RADIO LISTENERS INTERESTED IN NEWS
AND ENTERTAINMENT, BY AGE AND EDUCATION

	<i>Completed High School or More</i>	<i>Some High School</i>	<i>Grade School or Less</i>
20-29 years	49%	67%	x
30-49 years	39%	39%	57%
50 years and over	30%	33%	54%

x — Not enough cases

most available and most attended by young people have a straight entertainment character.

Again a comparison with another country will be helpful. We might too easily have the feeling that it is only "natural" for movies and radio to be mainly for entertaining people. Certainly, with some sections of the American public this seems to be the conviction. A congressional committee especially interested in clarifying the American way of life put a writer on the witness stand who in the committee's judgment was well equipped to describe desirable standards for the movies. According to the *New York Times* report this witness, Mrs. Rogers, especially disapproved of a movie *None But the Lonely Heart* because:

... the movie was "moody and sombre throughout in the Russian manner" and took time out for a propaganda preachment.

She gave another "example" from *None But the Lonely Heart*. The mother in the play, she recalled, operated a second-hand store. The son, Mrs. Rogers said, made this statement in effect in the play: "You're not going to get me to work here and squeeze pennies out of little people who are poorer than I am!"

Mrs. Rogers contended that the line was unnecessary in the play "because in life there are always people richer or poorer than ourselves."¹

These remarks are very pertinent for our present discussion. The witness felt that only aliens worried about poverty and such things, that the movies especially should realize that the social world as it is now could not be changed, and that it is not their business to be concerned with these problems—to the point of avoiding characters who try to find out what their duty is to the community as a whole.

For comparison we may turn to a people which we learn about only in school, the ancient Greeks. They did not have movies and radio but they did have their own media of mass communication—the epic tales which were recited everywhere by public performers. Homer's *Iliad*, for instance, was, approximately, the daytime serial of these Mediterranean people about six or seven centuries before the birth of Christ. The English scholar, Gilbert Murray, wrote a detailed description of *The Rise of the Greek Epic*. He summarizes

¹Mrs. Leila Rogers testifies, House Un-American Activities Committee hearing, October 25, 1947. *New York Times* 12:5.

how he thinks one of those ancient Greeks would have testified before a present-day congressional committee.

The idea of service to the community was more deeply rooted in the Greeks than in us. And as soon as they began to reflect about literature at all—which they did very early—the main question they asked about each writer was almost always upon these lines: “Does he help to make better men?” “Does he make life a better thing?” We all know with what rigid and passionate Puritanism this view is asserted by Plato. But Plato can never be taken as representing the average man. There is better evidence of ordinary feeling in the *Frogs* of Aristophanes. “On what grounds should a poet be admired?” says Aeschylus, and Euripides answers—“For his skill, his good counsel, and because we make men better in their cities.” Amid all the many cross-currents of criticism illustrated in the *Frogs*, there is not a protest against this judging of poetry by its fruits. The principle is accepted by all parties.²

There is no doubt that these Greeks wanted to be entertained by their theatrical performances and whatever other mass media they had at the time. But in addition, they expected these mass media to “make men better in their cities.” Gilbert Murray has an interesting theory on why the Greeks felt this way. In their small city-states, they were surrounded by tribes which were still almost in a savage state of development. There was a continuous danger that the Greek cities themselves would again be engulfed in the jungle of barbarism. Everything was concentrated to maintain the new level of civilization which they had so recently reached. But whatever the reason is, we have here another example of how differently two peoples can feel on comparable topics.

American mass media of communication as well as American youth are expected to run on a rather even keel, and to get not too excited about anything nor be too seriously concerned with public affairs, especially if they take the form of social movements. If you look at the data which describe how the majority of the people in the younger generation feel about the movies and radio, it turns out that they, by and large, agree with this prevailing trend in the American culture.

In a way, my presentation could stop at this point, because I have

²Gilbert Murray, *The Rise of The Greek Epic* (3rd ed.; Oxford: at The Clarendon Press, 1924), p.1.

told you what a cautious social scientist knows on the topic assigned to me. But perhaps some of you would like to know what I personally think about the present state of affairs. Unfortunately, I cannot give you a simple answer. As an educator who makes his living by "putting ideas into the heads of young people," I sometimes feel uneasy. Often I wish that more of them had an intensive interest in intellectual matters, were more frequently "moody and sombre," and most of all, had more opportunity to experience the excitement of social movements or what Gilbert Murray calls "service to the community." But I am also aware of the possible dangers of such a development. In Germany, as I mentioned before, the Nazis undoubtedly made very successful use of some of the psychological elements in the German youth movement. It is possible that one of the reasons why our country's democratic institutions are so safely founded is its tendency to keep young people and media of mass communication out of politics, even in the noble sense of the word.

But the matter becomes more complicated the more we think about it. Suppose it is true for the past, that the type of American which made this country free and prosperous could not and should not have had too much concern with ideological social movements and all sorts of "isms." How do we know that the same attitude will prevail in the future? Babe Ruth was, I understand, the best of baseball players and made the Yankees a great club twenty years ago. Should the Yankees therefore have kept him at bat indefinitely? After all, the economic conditions of this country, the complexity of its social organization, and its role in world affairs have changed tremendously in the past fifty years. Perhaps by now a different type of outlook on social problems would be more appropriate.

There is much talk about the danger that our civilization might become engulfed in a new wave of barbarism. What the Greeks had just behind them, Western Civilization might have just ahead of it. Thus we might have to look at our social institutions in a new way, even if the old way has been successful for the past 200 years. Undoubtedly, the types of sublimations which are expected from young people have a great deal to do with the way they will look at the world when they are adults. In turn, because the media of mass communication reinforce the old type of sublimation, we might even have to change our philosophy about radio and motion pictures

to bring them into gear with the changed world which we are facing.

I am afraid that each of you will have to make up your own mind as to what you would like to see happen. The social scientist is not a preacher who admonishes you about what you should do. He can only point up the factors which he sees operating in a specific problem situation and tell how he thinks they hang together.

There is just one general remark which can be added. Suppose some of us form a definite opinion on what would be a desirable development, does it make the slightest difference what we think? After all, it is difficult enough to influence one young person or to build one radio program. How hopeless it seems to do something about millions of them! Why, therefore, should we worry about a problem if there isn't anything we can do about it?

Still, what our society does with its young people or with its radio system and movie studios is influenced by thousands of discussions such as this one. It is true we leave it to the individual parent and the individual producers to do the best they can. But their ideas of what is right and wrong stem from the environment in which they live and we are part of that environment. Any discussion held here will also affect some people beyond this group and under fortunate circumstances will be influential in places where it finally matters. A youngster who one day may come to your library for advice, and whose trend of thought you influence, might twenty years later be a powerful radio executive. A decision which you make about a book to be included in or excluded from your circulation list might one day give courage to a movie producer to sponsor a different and socially more significant type of film. The stream of influence from theoretical discussions flows slowly and reaches its destination in weak trickles. But there would not be such a stream at all if you did not care to study the contemporary scene, try to understand what makes it tick, and make up your minds about which parts of it you like and which you want to change.

PART TWO

Materials of Communication
for Youth

Developmental Values in Books

ALICE R. BROOKS

IN THE ORGANIZATION of the Center for Instructional Materials at the University of Chicago an effort is being made to analyze children's literature in terms of all its potential uses. The staff considers this a necessary preliminary step to the Center's objective of implementing the use of reading in every phase of child development. Children's literature is valuable in this respect because it is a body of material which boys and girls tend to read more spontaneously than textbook material, and because its scope is being extended into all areas of child experience.

A survey of the nature of requests for, and the potential uses of, children's literature has revealed the following categories as significant to the librarian as well as to all other users of such materials:

- | | |
|-------------------------|--------------------------|
| (1) subject areas | (4) reading levels |
| (2) types of literature | (5) appeals |
| (3) activity use | (6) developmental values |

Most of these categories are common to the experience of persons handling children's literature except possibly the last heading "developmental values," with which this paper is chiefly concerned. Such an approach arises out of the increasing requests for reading materials that depict desirable social situations and relationships, or for materials that present behavior patterns conducive to the development of favorable character and personality traits and attitudes in youth. The extent to which the reading of books and magazines can really influence boys and girls towards these ends is a moot question, although both assumptions of its effectiveness and requests for material having such qualities are constantly in evidence.

THE DEFINITION OF DEVELOPMENTAL VALUES

The term "developmental value" is defined here to mean an element in a book which serves as an instrument of communication and supplies vicariously a wealth of experience that may aid a

reader in his choice of modes of behavior. A book has developmental value in so far as it provides stimulus situations for new behavior patterns or as it influences and reinforces desirable valuations and attitudes of the reader. A developmental value is related to the term "developmental task" as used in an earlier paper, the former being an attribute of the book, the latter of the reader.

The idea of using books in shaping and influencing a child's behavior is certainly not new. It is seen in the efforts of James Janeway, John Newbery, and the writers of the didactic era as well as in the saccharine flood of Sunday School literature of the early nineteenth century, but with a distinction. The concern of the publishers and authors of these books was largely with the morals and spiritual well-being of the child. Preachiness and moralizing protruded like a sore thumb from something that was far from realistic or literary. Children's fiction of today is more lifelike and complete. The writers are people of varied backgrounds and experience who by looking back into their own childhood or into the "child's world" about them have created stories that are vignettes of child life. In them a reader can see reflected his fears and dreams, problems and experiences in quite a complete and natural way. He sees characters his own age, meeting similar situations, dealing with like problems and coming in contact with a wide variety of people. The reader, as part of his enjoyment of the book, derives a personal satisfaction from discovering how these characters behave and react. It is conceivable also that indirectly the reading of such material and identification with the characters can have even more deep-seated effects on the child. It is on this assumption that the Materials Center is trying to designate the developmental values as one phase of its appraisal and analysis of books.

THE IDENTIFICATION OF DEVELOPMENTAL VALUES

However, this process of identifying developmental values in books is a complicated and amorphous one which has presented a number of problems and questions for the Materials Center. The first and major question that confronts us is whether this concept of developmental values is a valid one. That is, does the book really provide stimulus situations which can lead to new understandings and attitudes or influence and guide behavior? Second, do the books designat-

ed by authors, editors, and librarians for certain age levels, contain developmental values appropriate to the achievement of developmental tasks common to that maturity level? Does age, sex, or social class of the reader have any effect on his or her response? Third, is it possible to construct a list of values that adequately describe the potential relationships of books to the needs of childhood? What methods can be used in checking a book (a) for value contents, and (b) for effectiveness in transmitting these values?

Pooled judgment has been the process of identifying such values thus far, but in an effort to solve the above problems and to place this aspect of book appraisal on a sounder basis, the Center has undertaken a study in which it proposes to use some of the current research methods of child study in order to study book-reader relations. It is the major purpose of this paper to describe the study to its present state of progress.

A list of a hundred books was first selected which seemed to reflect particularly the current patterns of social experiences, interpersonal relations, and problems of childhood and youth. At the same time, in order to be sure that the books selected were ones popular with our children and young people, a large number of librarians throughout the country were asked to indicate which of these titles were in constant circulation. On the basis of their replies the fifty most popular books of fiction (twenty-five written for the later childhood age group and twenty-five for early adolescence) were selected for study.

The next step was to write to the authors of these books to ask them what, if any, ideas and values they had wished to transmit to the readers of the book in question. Classes of children's literature students at the Universities of Wisconsin and Chicago were also asked to read those books and to indicate what they, reading independently, thought were the developmental values of each book. There were three purposes for this part of the investigation. The first was to set up through pooled judgment as complete and representative a list of values for each book as possible. Second, we hoped to test the success of the value analyses of our own staff by comparing them with the judgments of several other adult readers and with the authors' statements of purpose. Finally, the pattern of values derived from each book by the adult analyses will be used

in exploring the responses of young readers to the values of the book.

The replies of the authors have formed an impressive and stimulating correspondence for the Materials Center. In most cases we have found that there is fair agreement between our enumeration of developmental values and those of the authors, but at the same time the books have taken on an added richness because of the authors' statements. The following quotations will show how the authors¹ express the values that they had in mind in writing their books.

Sensible Kate, by Doris Gates, relates to the later childhood task of "developing conscience and a scale of values." The author writes:

It has seemed to me for some time (a matter of years, actually) that the material aspects of living were being overstressed in the rearing of children. In spite of the strides we have made as a nation in our social thinking, our children are much too preoccupied with visible and opulent measures of success. . . good looks, good clothes, and good cars are pretty much the standards by which children value one another these days. I wanted to do a story in which a little girl, valuing these things as do all her contemporaries, was forced to find a new set of values in order to find happiness in living.

For this particular book we have had access to a stenographic report of a discussion by an eighth-grade group of girls. One girl had the following comments to contribute to the discussion:²

Other people spoiled Beverly because they envied her too much. . . . [About parents] Children give them something to work for, not just for themselves. They give them a sort of sense of accomplishment. . . . Nora told her a secret and Kate felt that she really trusted her. . . . I liked the way Kate acted. She didn't speak to Vic [when his brother died]—just sat beside him for hours. People always say they're sorry when that happens but she didn't. She knew it wouldn't help matters. People think it's polite to say they're sorry. . . . You don't have to be beautiful outside to be happy. . . . Really it's the individual more than the age. Some do what they know is right. It's the way they were brought up. Others do things even though they know it's wrong.

Certain authors have tried to further the achievement of emotional

¹These excerpts are from personal letters to the writer of this article, used with permission of the authors.

²From a discussion in the eighth grade of the New Park Avenue School, Hartford, Connecticut, as recorded by the teacher, Miss Deborah B. Elkins.

independence in adolescence. Lenora Weber expresses this idea in commenting on *Meet the Malones*:

I think it all started with my comparing in my own mind the differences between a democracy which builds strength from the inside and a totalitarian government which makes a hard crust on the outside and softness inside (like a turtle, say). . . . Having six children of my own, I've tried so hard to let them make their own decisions even though it meant paying for their mistakes; that is, when it didn't involve irreparable and too costly mistakes.

Elizabeth Enright has this same idea of emotional independence in *The Saturdays* but directs it towards later childhood although this is not included among the developmental tasks of that period.

These children, the Melendys, exist in a rather elastic and comfortable structure of ethics. They are (as I think children should be) taught independence and responsibility early. They are fairly intelligent, and their tastes and faculties are encouraged, or at least not discouraged except when they conflict seriously with the principles and functioning of the group. . . . They will never be saints. They will make mistakes and lose their tempers, and their egos will still be subject to the well-known wounds. But if they have love, independence, creative intelligence and shared responsibilities, they ought, they really ought, to grow into sound, useful individuals: contributive members of society.

Another developmental task of adolescence is that of "accepting one's masculine or feminine role," since sex differences become more pronounced during this period. The tomboy of later childhood may have been greatly admired in her group but unless she learns to temper her boyish tendencies with an acceptance of her sex role unhappiness may result. *Caddie Woodlawn* gives a good picture of the growing pains and ultimate satisfaction attending this necessary adjustment. As Mrs. Brink puts it, "My third purpose was to show a tom-boy girl growing up and realizing her obligations and opportunities as a woman."

This is only a sampling of the ideas and purposes that some current authors have had in mind as they wrote. In the completed study the statements of all these authors as well as the list of titles studied will be reported in full. One point that is stressed quite unanimously by

all authors is that their major purpose is the writing of a good story for children. Their success is evidenced by the fact that librarians report these fifty titles in constant circulation, which is an essential factor in exploring the effectiveness of books in promoting the achievement of developmental tasks.

STUDYING THE EFFECTS OF BOOKS ON YOUTH

The last step of the study as well as the most significant and the most difficult one is only just beginning. This part consists of the search for evidence that books do affect the development and behavior of children and the study of factors that condition the nature of responses. No one method can be used to collect these data and certainly the approaches used cannot be too direct and obvious. Each book in relation to a reader or group of readers must be studied separately and a different testing approach must be prepared for each on the basis of the pattern of values gleaned from the pooled statements of authors and adult readers.

Certain indirect or nondirective techniques now employed in research on child development and behavior will be adapted. A few of these are:

1. The focused interview,³ designed to determine through conversations the responses of persons exposed to a situation previously analyzed by the investigator, in this case, the content analysis of a book read later by boys and girls. This procedure may be modified and used in a discussion of a book by a group of readers which will be recorded in toto by the investigator. Examples of such discussions can be found in a pamphlet on developing human understanding through reading, published by the American Council on Education.⁴
2. A story projective technique⁵ which will interpret the responses of an individual to situations similar to those in the book, in order to see what hidden information he reveals about himself in relation to the meanings gained from the book.

³Robert K. Merton and Patricia L. Kendall, "The Focused Interview," *American Journal of Sociology*, LI (May 1946), 541-557.

⁴American Council on Education. *Intergroup Education in Cooperating Schools. Literature for Human Understanding* (Work in Progress Series (Washington: The Council, 1947)).

⁵Lawrence K. Frank, "Projective Methods for the Study of Personality," *Journal of Psychology*, VIII (1939), 389-413.

3. A sociometric technique⁶ which reveals the reader's identification with or rejection of characters in the books together with the positive and negative qualities that he attributes to these characters.

One informing type of material might be secured through letters which children spontaneously write to the authors themselves. Some of the authors give evidence that children write such letters. Youthful enthusiasts for the "Betsy-Tacy" books tend to identify with the heroines, according to their letters. Maud Hart Lovelace, the author, writes:

They [the books] are based, of course, on friendship. This is a value which children seem instinctively to cherish. Many of the letters I receive tell eagerly of friendships. "My girl friend and I are just like Betsy and Tacy."

Howard Pease comments more directly:

Do all my readers find it? No. From fan mail I have decided that perhaps fifty per cent do, while the others are aware only of the story, the adventures, the suspense. Yet I believe that as some of these latter readers grow older, they may sometime think back to the book and discover a value in it that they didn't know was there before.

Although the major portion of this third phase of the study is still largely in the future, a few straws in the wind give indications of some of the directions that the findings might take:

1. The impact of one or all of the developmental values in a book will not produce dynamic changes in an individual. Its effects are of a contributory sort just as the everyday experiences of living and socializing *contribute to* rather than produce growth and development. The vicarious experiences derived from reading are merely part of an overall pattern of forces.
2. To be effective the values in books must be appropriate to the developmental level of the reader, i.e., they should either correspond to or slightly precede the level. Lack of this effectiveness may not be due to the book itself but may result because an individual reads a book too late in a developmental period. This fact would seem to

⁶Caroline M. Tryon, *Evaluations of Adolescent Personality by Adolescents*. Monograph of the Society for Research in Child Development, IV, No. 4, Serial No. 23 (Washington: The Society, 1939).

indicate that reading appeals span a wider age range than developmental values. For example, two girls, one eighth grade and one tenth grade, were commenting enthusiastically on Maureen Daly's *Seventeenth Summer*. When the conversation turned to the heroine's attitudes and decisions about adolescent problems of sex, smoking, and drinking, they were commended by the eighth grader and termed naive by the tenth grader.

3. Variations in responses of children of different socioeconomic levels and cultural groups have been noticed. Middle-class children reading Beim's *Two Is a Team* saw the more obvious implications of playing and working together whereas a child at a lower socioeconomic level was impressed by the paying of the grocery and other bills. A teacher from the Southwest reports that the Spanish American children who read Florence Crannell Means' *Teresita of the Valley* showed a different attitude toward their people and new pride in their background. When I questioned her as to change of attitudes in the non-Spanish readers, she confessed that they had rejected the book. She has promised to try to promote the reading of this and some other possible titles with all the children next year and report the results.
4. Children may all respond to the same value in a book but the responses may vary from individual to individual depending on what his needs and receptivity are. In *Literature for Human Understanding*, referred to previously, there is a transcription of a discussion of Marjorie K. Rawlings' *A Mother in Manneville* by a group of eighth-grade children which illustrates this point. The hero of the story is an orphan who creates an imaginary mother. Out of the thirty pupils in the class discussing the book, sixteen had only one or no parents because of death, divorce or desertion. The comments of the children in terms of their various parental situations and relations are very revealing.
5. At present, at least, our analysis of values in a book is neither final nor complete. When Frieda Friedman's *Dot for Short* was first evaluated and analyzed, the values set down for it were "family relations," "age-mate relations," and "value building." Later, when we realized that "keeping a secret" or "holding a confidence" is an appropriate task of later childhood, we noted this new value. A request for material presenting a certain situation or relationship frequently will give us an entirely new approach or slant to the contents of certain books, and this re-evaluation often results in several developmental value headings for some books.

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THE CONSTRUCTION OF A LIST OF DEVELOPMENTAL VALUES IN BOOKS

These are a few of the significant aspects of book-value-reader relations that seem to be indicated at the present stage of the study. A list of developmental values is evolving in the Center from the analysis of several hundred children's books. It has had a Topsy-like growth for it has been derived from the analysis of specific books, our general knowledge of children's needs at various ages, and the requests for values that the Center receives, all seasoned with a generous sprinkling of staff discussion. It is full of holes and there are glaring examples of overlapping values, synonymous terms for the same values, and poor selection of terms. One of the purposes of the study described in this paper is to evolve a sound list of headings, more closely integrated with child development, not only for our own use but for anyone who needs to consider this approach to literature. Conceivably such a list might follow the pattern presented in the accompanying table. Certain values apply to any age and are built around four areas: inner life, interpersonal relations, adjustment behaviors, and ideologies. Examples of each area are suggested in the table. Then for each period of childhood and youth there are many appropriate and specific values clustering about the developmental tasks of that period. The chart contains a suggestive pattern only for later childhood and adolescence, since the study is limited to these periods.

As is evidenced from the foregoing account this investigation is far from finished. In fact it may be said quite optimistically that it is doubtful if it will ever terminate since the very methods of the study itself may well become the ongoing process of identifying developmental values. These values would be derived from the statements of the authors in combination with the pooled judgments of competent adults. Their choice of values and the effectiveness of the book as a medium of communicating these values would then be tested by the actual reactions of the readers.

IMPLICATIONS FOR THE FUTURE

Several implications of the study are apparent at the present time:

1. The steady receipt of requests in the Center for material containing certain developmental values indicates that this approach to

TABLE 5

A SUGGESTED STRUCTURE OF DEVELOPMENT VALUES FOR USE IN
ANALYZING CHILDREN'S LITERATURE*

OVERALL VALUES COMMON TO ALL AGES		LATER CHILDHOOD		PUBESCENCE	
	Values in Terms of Tasks	Ancillary Values (Examples Only)	Values in Terms of Tasks	Ancillary Values (Examples Only)	
Inner Life	{ Security Self-reliance Self-expression Valuations		Healthy living	{ Cleanliness Self-care	
	{ Family Peers "Superiors" and "Inferiors" Community Other cultural groups	{ Manual dexterity Sportsmanship Teamwork	Physical skills	{ Boy-girl relations Growing up Sex conduct	
Inter- personal relations	{ Change of behavior Change of status Change of patterns of living Change in self- reality con- cept	{ Boy behavior patterns Girl behavior patterns	Sex role	{ Boy-girl relations Group participation Leadership	
	{ Change of behavior Change of status Change of patterns of living Change in self- reality con- cept	{ Friendship values Group acceptance	Age-mate relations	{ Poise Self-expression Self-reliance	
Adjust- ments in behavior	{ Democratic ideas Aesthetic appreciation Spiritual concepts	{ Perceptual acuteness Respect for property Responsibility Perseverance	Intellectual skills	{ Resourcefulness Money, acqui- sition and use Self-improve- ment	
	{ Democratic ideas Aesthetic appreciation Spiritual concepts	{ Consideration for others Sharing Cooperation Manners	Everyday life concepts	{ Industry Working relations Business ethics	
Ideologies			Social attitudes	{ Courage Leadership Citizenship	
				Civic competence	

TABLE 5, Conl.

OVERALL VALUES COMMON TO ALL AGES			PUBESCENCE	
	LATER CHILDHOOD		Values in Terms of Tasks	Ancillary Values (Examples Only)
	Values in Terms of Tasks	Ancillary Values (Examples Only)		
	Emotional control	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Overcoming fear Self-confidence Self-control 	Social responsibility	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Adaptability Service to others Neighborhoodness
	Conscience and value building	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Self-appraisal Keeping a confidence Temptation, resisting Truthfulness 	Marriage preparation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> (See sex changes) Emotional independence etc.
	Family life	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Brother-sister relationships Parent-child understandings Baby, adjustment to Helpfulness 	Value building	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Moderation Devotion to a cause Loyalty
			Family relational changes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Older-younger child relations Parent-youth understanding Compromise

*NOTE: Early Childhood and Later Adolescence are not structured for this study.

children's literature is of increasing importance and must not be ignored. Adults reading children's literature should include the developmental values of a book in their appraisal. To try to carry these values in mind after one reading will prove inadequate. For example, the Intergroup Workshop, sponsored by the American Council on Education and held at the University of Chicago, has been developing units for promoting sensitivity in children and young people. The participants have had to re-evaluate a large amount of material from entirely new angles even though they might have read a great deal of it previously.

2. The current practices of cataloging are now becoming inadequate, at least for children's and school libraries. Our systematic analysis of books will have to be extended to include the area of developmental values. The list of value headings that this study prepares should prove to be a helpful tool. Meanwhile, the present evaluative index of the Materials Center can be used as suggestive for such cataloging and as a source of information about developmental values in children's literature. The Center attempts to secure and evaluate all books as published. Each book in the Service Collection contains an evaluation slip designating appropriate headings according to the six categories outlined at the beginning of this paper. The *Monthly Service Bulletin* of the Center lists, for current material, an analysis of each item according to these categories.
3. The values of books should be continuously studied in terms of the developmental tasks of childhood. Those who are in daily contact with children as readers should observe and record the effects of books, the impressions they make, evidences of positive and negative effects, as well as any inconsistencies or contradictory elements. It is conceivable that some books, although designed to present desirable attitudes and situations to readers, may actually produce the opposite effect through wrong techniques of presentation. Such observations as these should be disseminated so that others using children's literature in similar situations may have the benefit of the experience.

In conclusion, an admonishing comment may be in order. I should like to emphasize the fact that the identification of developmental values in children's literature is an adult process in which children rarely play a conscious part either in their selection of what they read or in their post-reading discussions. Children are reading because of interest factors and not "to be developed." The elements that con-

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tribute to a good story and to the book as a creative, literary piece still remain among the major factors in our appraisal of books for children. Without them the developmental values of books would exist in a vacuum completely removed from the "child world" in which we wish to have them play their part.

Print and the Communication of Intergroup Understanding

ETHEL J. ALPENFELS

IF WE BEGIN by asking, "What can books do to increase understanding between groups?" we must, if we are honest, confess that we do not know. The truth is that we have only just begun to measure the effect that printed materials can have on intergroup relationships. Some of our present theories are sure to change as we find better and more effective techniques of evaluating materials.

Nevertheless, there are things we do know. We know that books are one of the most important media through which people get *information* about the world and about the people who live in it. Until very recently, however, much of the knowledge we have had has been warped and, too often, has been made up of half-truths. Sometimes this has happened because our history and geography books have not been brought up to date, as when children grow up with the idea that all Eskimos live in snow igloos. This has happened because their books, and the books that their parents and teachers read as they were growing up, singled out the igloo as the cultural trademark of the Eskimo. If books portrayed, instead, the Eskimos' attitude toward war, children's ideas about them would be healthier and, what is also to the point, more accurate. Sometimes half-truths have grown up simply because we have neglected many areas in writing books for young people: the islands of the Pacific; certain of the other Americas; the peoples who live in Asia; the true picture of the contributions of the Negro American; a realization of the number of different ways people may react to and solve the same problem right here in the United States. The list of omissions is a long one! But it is important to remember that our textbooks have been written by "white men" who perhaps unconsciously stereotype other groups by creating pictures that substantiate "white supremacy"; e.g., a Negro too frequently represented as an African who would frighten a

Congo native. But we are gradually learning that through carefully written and chosen books the new, the different, and the strange become acceptable and understandable to young people.

We know, too, that stereotypes in books can reinforce stereotypes that already exist in people's minds. The Bureau of Applied Social Research at Columbia University did some important work a few years ago on stereotypes in modern fiction and advertising. Among other things, the survey found that "the constant repetition of racial stereotypes was exaggerating and perpetuating the false, the mischievous notion that ours is a white, Protestant, Anglo-Saxon country in which all other racial stocks and religious faiths are of lesser dignity."¹

We have learned that by constant repetition of false ideas, it is possible to influence the minds of intelligent, thinking adults. The Hitler government did that. In Germany in the 1930's, literature, radio, and all other forms of mass communication were bent to serve the government. This fact was responsible in large part for the success of the Nazis in corrupting a whole nation. In a democracy, librarians are in a strategic position to change men's habits of thinking by using good books to bring about better understanding. A good story takes the reader by surprise—his defenses are down, he's having a good time. Through a well-chosen book he gets to know people his prejudices would otherwise prevent him from meeting.

We are realizing that we have underestimated what young people want to know in the field of human relations. Too often we give them imaginative tales when they also want to know about real people, real situations, true facts concerning themselves. We know that the librarian who is genuinely concerned can help to improve relations between groups.

But, what should her role be? Should she confine herself to getting good books into the hands of the public? Should she go farther and play the role of censor, banning from the library shelves those books which create undesirable attitudes? Or should her role be something different from both of these?

Let us consider the librarian as censor first, since when confronted with this problem most people think immediately of suppressing the

¹Columbia University, Bureau of Applied Social Research, *The Myth That Threatens America* (N.Y.: The Writers' War Board, 1945), p.23.

undesirable. At the outset, censorship is impractical. The librarian who tried, literally, to remove from shelves every book which contained stereotypes would have almost no books left. It is true, of course, that a librarian makes a legitimate choice when she buys a book that creates good attitudes in preference to one that creates bad.

Where shall the line be drawn? Most people would say that the librarian is justified in refusing shelf space to a poisonous book like Thomas Dixon's *The Clansman*, which, furthermore, has no literary value. On the other hand, few would say that *Huckleberry Finn* should be kept from our children because one character is called Nigger Jim, especially since the presentation of that character is sympathetic and Twain by implication was condemning slavery on ethical grounds. The books which lie in between cause all of the trouble. Often they force the librarian to face public opinion demanding the removal of certain books from her shelves. *Little Black Sambo* is one of these.

Mrs. Pauline Taylor of the Kalamazoo Public Schools in discussing this book and its stereotyping effects writes:

Many teachers and parents feel that the beloved *Little Black Sambo* should not be removed from children's literature experiences. Leave it in then, if you must, but keep in mind and in the minds of children that it is a caricature—not a real picture of a child—and a caricature is "just for fun." Then supplement the picture of a black child which *Little Black Sambo* gives with some true pictures of black or brown children. For *Little Black Sambo* was originally intended as a child from India (not Africa) but we have corrupted its original intention and applied it as a stereotype of Negro children.²

Censorship, through public opinion, must be examined critically. The consideration which should make librarians pause before giving in to the demands to remove any book from the shelves is the knowledge that in some parts of our country, the public might exert pressure to remove a desirable book—a book like *Two Is a Team*. For this is the story of a Negro and a white boy playing side by side—an idea which some might not choose to have popularized. But censorship at best is a negative approach.

Let the librarian emphasize the positive rather than the negative

²From a talk given before the Teachers' Intercultural Workshop, Kalamazoo, Michigan, 1946.

aspects of the problem. Let her choose for her library books that will give broadening concepts of understanding on which to build happy, successful, and well-adjusted citizens of our country and of the world.

There are two special types of books that librarians can make sure are always in full view: books which present individuals of all groups who are convincing and real characters—a source of enjoyment to us all, a source of pride to their own groups—and books which present the rich background of man's physical inheritance. Among the first type of books should be novels and stories which portray minority individuals as heroes, with skilled hands or brains, or as public minded; but more important, novels that show people working together on common problems which have nothing to do with racial or religious issues. Among the second type of books are those such as Eva Knox Evan's *All About Us* for later elementary grades, Alex Novikoff's *Climbing Our Family Tree* for junior high school, Herbert Zim's *Mice, Men and Elephants*, and Ralph and Adelin Linton's *Man's Way from Cave to Skyscraper*.

The past two years have seen a growing number of books in the field of human relations. What criteria should be used for determining whether a book is likely to be one which fosters good attitudes? Helen Trager, in an article in *Childhood Education*, lists the criteria which she used in determining whether a book tends to build good attitudes:

- Is the literary quality good?
- Is the material dated?
- Is the material suitable for the age level?
- Are the people real or are they types?
- Are all groups fairly treated?
- If dialect is used, is it excessive, unfair, stereotype?
- Are differences overemphasized?
- Are unscientific ideas and misconceptions perpetuated?
- Is a particular way of life, a custom or a tradition explained, or is it described with bias?
- Can the reader like, understand, or identify with the person or group in the story?
- Do the illustrations help one to like the people in the story, or are they stereotype, queer, or ugly?
- Is the book significant from an intercultural point of view?³

³"Intercultural Books for Children," *Childhood Education*, XXII (1945), 139.

Mrs. Trager's list is an excellent one and, with certain changes, could be applied to adult books as well.

Let us consider the problem from another angle. The librarian can certainly do more than choose good books and put them on the shelves, hoping that the public will find them. She can seek actively to call the attention of readers to books she believes are good and to create a demand for them. Special celebrations like Brotherhood Week and Negro History Week are utilized by libraries everywhere. But better group understanding will not develop out of a week set aside occasionally—it must be a conscious, ongoing activity. The New York Public Library, for example, has a shelf in its main circulation room containing biography and autobiography; there is another filled with books and pamphlets on intergroup relations, with materials changed constantly. Reading lists, bulletin board displays, the book-review hour are all well-known techniques. But other public relations programs that the library engages in—whether cooperation with bookstores in promoting certain books, radio programs, or drama groups—may be turned to account in familiarizing the public with books that build good human relations. Above all, it is necessary to keep in mind, that, important as books are, there are other influences at work on the individual at the same time. A book that creates good attitudes can help to counteract an undemocratic action, but it cannot do the whole job.

Reading, getting the "facts," spreading correct information should be supplemented by discussion groups—the storytelling hour, the book-review period—centered around carefully chosen books and, what is more important, involving the whole group. For we know that if we can draw each child into the discussion, if we can encourage him to participate, if we can somehow let him know that he has something important to "tell" the group, we make possible the process of reciprocal learning which is a basic technique in intergroup understanding. We learn when we talk together; we learn about the individual as a person, as a member of a family, as part of an ethnic group; and he learns about us. It is peculiarly the task of the librarian to help break the taboo of silence that we may read and talk about our differences.

Lillian Smith has summed up this idea of developing a democratic concept of citizenship when she writes:

The unpardonable sin for you, for me, for every human being is to have more knowledge than understanding, more power than love, more information about this earth than of the people who live on it, more skill to invent quick ways of travel to faraway places when one cannot grope one's way within one's own heart. For Freedom is a dreadful thing unless it goes hand in hand with responsibility. Democracy among men is a specter except when the hearts of men are mature.⁴

A BASIC READING LIST FOR BACKGROUND IN THE FIELD

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⁴Lillian Smith, "Right to Grow," *Woman's Home Companion*, LXXIII (1946), 25.

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Therapeutic Value of Books

KATHERINE G. KENEALLY

ALTHOUGH THE term bibliotherapy has come into common practice in recent years, the use of reading for therapeutic purposes dates back many centuries. In recent articles, Dr. Alice Bryan points out various definitions of the term bibliotherapy. She states that Karl Menninger uses the term to designate "the use of carefully selected books for therapeutic purposes."¹ She quotes Dr. Gordon R. Kamman's definition as follows: "a form of 'psychological dietetics.'"² He holds that reading that helps in emotional adjustment may even influence physical disorders. Appel terms bibliotherapy "the use of books, articles, pamphlets, etc., as adjuvants in psychiatric treatment."³

VALUES AND USES OF BIBLIOTHERAPY

Bibliotherapy is used not only in mental institutions, but in veterans' hospitals, tuberculosis hospitals, and in general hospitals. It has also been used and found helpful in prisons. Recently bibliotherapy has been used with problem children as a means of inculcating ideals and correct moral principles. We may consider every library whether in a home, school, hospital, or prison as a place for possible bibliotherapy.

Hospital librarians are interested in the application of bibliotherapy to the patient in the hospital. Ruth Hyatt,⁴ in tracing the history of hospital libraries, reports that they have been in existence since the beginning of the century. E. Kathleen Jones was the first person to organize a hospital library and to administer it for the benefit of the patients at the McLean Hospital for the Feeble-Minded at Waverly, Massachusetts. In 1904 the Massachusetts General Hospital

¹Alice I. Bryan, "Can There Be a Science of Bibliotherapy?" *Library Journal*, LXIV (1939), 11.

²Alice I. Bryan, "The Psychology of the Reader," *ibid.*, 775.

³Kenneth Appel, "Psychiatric Therapy," in Joseph M. Hunt, ed., *Personality and the Behavior Disorders* (N. Y.: Ronald Pr., 1944), II, p.1130.

⁴Ruth Hyatt, "Book Service in a General Hospital," *Library Journal*, LXV (1940), 684-87.

established a library department as a part of its regular therapeutic work and organized bedside book service. In 1900 Alice Tyler, Secretary of the State Library Commission of Iowa, organized an institutional library.

Currently, bibliotherapy is an important part of therapeutic procedure in many veterans' hospitals throughout the country. In some of these hospitals reading rooms have been established and reading clubs have been organized. Bibliotherapy has been of great value in treating patients in neuropsychiatric hospitals. Reading is coordinated with interests in occupational, physical, musical, and general recreational therapeutic programs.

E. B. Allen⁵ of the Westchester Division of New York Hospital reports the value of a bibliotherapeutic laboratory. Their plan consists of having competent patients present book reviews at their semimonthly meetings to any of their associates who are interested. The patient who is presenting the review conducts the meeting. The psychiatrist is present at the meetings, but as an observer rather than as a participant. Often the patient reveals his emotional needs or disturbances in the books he reviews. This information is of value to the psychiatrist in treatment.

Lucy Condell⁶ reports the use of the group therapy approach in a neuropsychiatric hospital. In this type of therapy the storytelling hour technique is used. The results show that this approach brings the patient by gradual steps away from his own troubles to new interests. Dr. Ireland⁷ states that bibliotherapy is a "true reconstructive agent" in treatment in neuropsychiatric hospitals.

Creglow⁸ enumerated the following benefits that hospital patients derive from bibliotherapy: (1) It keeps the patient contented during his stay in the hospital; (2) It changes the patient's attitude toward life by replacing destructive emotions with constructive ones; (3) The patient learns how to take care of himself physically and mentally; (4) The mild physical exercise in reading is in itself helpful. She

⁵Edward Allen, "Books Help Neuropsychiatric Patients," *Library Journal*, LXXI (1946), 1671-75.

⁶Lucy Condell, "The Story Hour in a Neuropsychiatric Hospital," *Library Journal*, LXXII (1945), 805-7.

⁷G. O. Ireland, "Bibliotherapy: the Use of Books as a Form of Treatment in a Neuropsychiatric Hospital," *Library Journal*, LIV (1929), 974.

⁸Elizabeth R. Creglow, "Therapeutic Value of Properly Selected Reading Matter," *Medical Bulletin of The Veterans' Administration*, VII (1931), 1086-89.

also points out that reading matter should be selected in the light of the patient's problems.

Dr. Schneck⁹ of the Menninger Foundation reports two case studies where bibliotherapy was used as an aid in treatment. In the first case reported, bibliotherapy was used in addition to psychotherapy; in the second case, it served as an adjunct to hypnotherapy. In neither case was it used alone, but as a valuable aid in treatment. Bibliotherapy was advantageous in treating both patients. It was an important aid in eliciting conflict material and decreased the period of treatment. It also enabled treatment to continue between psychiatric interviews and for some time after the patient returned home, thus avoiding sudden termination of therapy.

Dr. Appel, of the Pennsylvania State Hospital, says bibliotherapy "chiefly serves as a means of acquiring information and knowledge about the psychology and physiology of human behavior."¹⁰ He lists the following purposes for which reading may be advised: (1) to attempt to arouse the patient's interest in something outside himself; (2) to arouse interest and acquaintance with external reality; (3) to effect an abreaction of unconscious processes; (4) to offer opportunities for identification and compensation; (5) to help the patient to develop a clarification of his difficulties; (6) to contribute to the development of "insight."¹¹

Patients in a tuberculosis hospital usually have a longer period of convalescence than do patients in a general hospital. This time element must be considered in prescribing reading materials for them. Although the patients have a common ailment, their interests, cultural backgrounds and emotional disturbances must be considered individually.

In the majority of hospitals of this type reading is not prescribed by the physician but the patients have the benefit of bedside library service. However, the librarian in such a setting may be very helpful in aiding patients in the selection of reading material.

One of my friends, at present a practicing psychiatrist, was formerly a patient in a tuberculosis hospital for nine months. During this period she read approximately a book a day and kept notes of her

⁹Jerome M. Schneck, "Bibliotherapy for Neuropsychiatric Patients: Report of Two Cases," *Bulletin of The Menninger Clinic*, X (1946), 18-25.

¹⁰Kenneth Appel, *op. cit.*, p.1130

¹¹*Ibid.*

reactions on index cards which she consented to let me read. Her selections included a wide range of material from light fiction to books of a professional nature. Although these books were not prescribed reading, being a psychiatrist, she kept records of them with the idea of recommending them later to her own patients. With her permission I will give you her verbatim reactions to two of these many books she read.

Magic Mountain by Thomas Mann. Re the convalescent physician caring for the patients. Sympathy between doctor and patient is surely desirable and a case might be made out for the view that only he who suffers can be the guide and healer of the suffering. And yet—can true spiritual mastery over a power be attained by him who is counted among her slaves? Can he free others who himself is not free? The ailing physician remains a paradox to the average mind and a questionable phenomenon. May not his scientific knowledge tend to be clouded and confused by his own participation rather than enriched and morally reinforced? He cannot face disease in clear-eyed hostility to her. He is a prejudiced party, his position is equivocal. With all due reserve it must be asked whether a man who himself belongs among the ailing can give himself to the cure or care of others as can a man who is himself entirely sound.

Edward Livingston Trudeau, An Autobiography. Comment—An autobiography that draws a man and his soul. Not altogether a reassuring book to the patient: one that should not be advised indiscriminately but one which may have two effects—a good one on the premature impetuous convalescent and a depressing and disturbing one on the apprehensive patient.

The comments on these two books indicate that they should be recommended with care to tuberculosis patients.

METHODS OF APPLYING BIBLIOTHERAPY

The work in bibliotherapy with which I am most familiar is that which has been done at the Child Center of the Catholic University of America, in Washington, D.C. All the bibliotherapy at the University was done by Dr. Thomas V. Moore, Head of the Department of Psychology and Psychiatry, and Director of the Child Center. In his work with problem children Dr. Moore became interested in finding a practical way of supplanting unwholesome ideals and introduc-

ing in their place healthy attitudes and emotional stability.

The preadolescent and adolescent patients with whom Dr. Moore worked were too old for the play therapy technique which is successful with young children. On the other hand, they were not mature enough to discuss their problems with the therapist as adults do. Dr. Moore therefore decided to try the bibliotherapeutic technique with this group of patients after rapport had been established between the therapist and child.

In order to have a library containing books that would be valuable as tools for treatment Dr. Moore secured the aid of Miss Clara Kircher of the Newark Public Library. Miss Kircher examined and read thoroughly approximately 2000 books and from these 2000 books selected 263 titles. These books were analyzed, keeping in mind their use as character building agents. This list compiled by Miss Kircher has been published under the title of *Character Formation Through Books: A Bibliography*.¹² The books range in grade level from grade one to grade twelve. The "Character Index" includes headings such as Honesty, Obedience, Sportsmanship, Study, Self-Reliance, etc., the emphasis being on the positive rather than the negative aspects of character.

These books were purchased and formed the basis of the bibliotherapy at the Child Center. In the introduction to Miss Kircher's book Dr. Moore writes,

Psychology suggests two ways in which the reading of books may be of intrinsic essential aid in treating the problem child.

1. The child reads a book in which the hero or heroine suffers from trials very closely allied to the present problem of the child. In so doing he lives out the hero's emotions and abreacts his own; that is to say, he gives vent to his pent-up affective life and obtains in this way a certain amount of psychological relief.
2. The child gleans general principles governing conduct, ideals, and attitudes of mind which enable him to see his own difficulties from a wholesome point of view and so to manage himself more in accordance with the dictates of reason.¹³

This second concept dictated the analysis of the contents of the

¹²Clara J. Kircher, *Character Formation Through Books: A Bibliography* (2d ed.; Washington: Catholic Univ. of America Pr., 1945).

¹³*Ibid.*, p.5.

books and the preparation of the "Character Index" by which one may select a book touching on the main problem of the child.

Dr. Moore's aim in the use of this procedure was to develop in the child's mind sound principles of conduct which he might put into practice. He lists the following stages of development in the control of conduct by a principle:

1. The principle is perceived and admired.
2. It remains dormant in the mind for an indefinite period and has apparently nothing to do with conduct.
3. An occasion arises in which the subject sees a relation between the occasion and the principle and with more or less effort on his part the principle determines conduct.
4. A period of development occurs in which the principles more and more consistently determine conduct until the correct response to the situation follows as if by reflex action.¹⁴

Dr. Moore introduces bibliotherapy with his patients after good rapport has been established. When this relationship exists the child is usually willing to read any book the therapist suggests.

Merely reading a book, however, is not sufficient to implant new ideals and standards of conduct. Many children read books merely for interest or for the pleasure derived from the story. Children may formulate new standards of conduct and ideals and good moral principles, but refuse to apply them to their own personal problems.

It takes skillful questioning and guidance on the part of the therapist to lead the child to apply the principles he has acquired to his own problem. This can be done when the therapist knows and understands the child and his problem and can lead the child to desire to apply the acquired principles to his personal problem.

In the following cases, which I shall report briefly, you will perceive how bibliotherapy proceeds:

Case I.—A sixteen-year-old girl was coming to the clinic because she was having epileptic seizures. At one interview she stated, "I am sixteen now and I won't go to school any longer and I am going to leave home and live by myself."

Her determination to leave home was the result of a quarrel between her father and grandmother. When in a violent temper her father ordered her grandmother to leave the house. The young girl

¹⁴*Ibid.*, p.7.

loved her grandmother and decided to leave home if her father carried out his threat.

After talking her problem over with Dr. Moore she promised to delay her departure from home for two weeks, and took *Land Spell* by Carroll home to read.

In a few days Dr. Moore received a letter from his young patient who said in the letter:

I read the book and now I see what you mean. I must have my education in order to go out and face the world. I realize now that I must take a step down for happiness. I know now that that the man who said, "Pride goeth before a fall" was really right. I have gone to school now for a week and I can truthfully say that I have never had a better time. Dr. Moore, I think my Daddy really loves me now and doesn't want me to leave.¹⁵

In summarizing this case Dr. Moore writes, "And so a little bibliography was very helpful in this problem and could be in many similar ones. In these acute adolescent crises a delay of a few weeks is often all that is needed to tide over the present difficulty and lay the foundations of a therapeutic procedure which will modify the whole personality."¹⁶

Case II.—A fourteen-year-old girl was sent to the Child Center from an orphanage. The complaint was that she was sulky, sullen, always contradicting, couldn't be satisfied, and couldn't get along with anyone.

In her first interview with Dr. Moore the child spoke about wanting to leave the orphanage and go to an academy with some of the girls in her grade. She then started to sob and said, "They tell me I can't because of my disposition."¹⁷ The girl then told Dr. Moore of her difficulties with her teacher and with the other girls in the orphanage. She also discussed her worries about her mother who was ill. She wanted to get a job and establish a home for her mother.

When the child realized that Dr. Moore was not blaming her for her disposition, rapport was established and the way opened for bibliography. *Wagon to the Star* by Meese was suggested and willingly accepted by the young patient. She read the book in two days and

¹⁵*Ibid.*, p.8.

¹⁶*Ibid.*, p.9.

¹⁷*Ibid.*

returned eagerly to talk over her reactions with the therapist.

By skillful questioning Dr. Moore elicited the principles and ideals of conduct that made Mary, the heroine, popular with her friends. This was the turning point in the patient's life and initiated a marked change for the better in the patient's behavior.

Dr. Moore comments on this case, "It appears that one can introduce ideals and principles into the mind of the child much more easily by bibliotherapy than by verbal instruction and persuasion. The child discovers the ideals and principles for himself. The emotional interest of the story gives them a warmth, a coloring and a beauty that awaken admiration and a desire to imitate. The patient identifies himself with the hero and takes unto himself for a time at least the ideals and aspirations of the hero. Conversation with the therapist helps the child to make these ideals permanent acquisitions. In the course of the interviews ideals that are at first barren become guides to right conduct."¹⁸

These two cases are unusual in that they represent some apparent change in conduct made by children after the reading of a single book. The majority of cases, however, where bibliotherapy is used require much more time, progressive reading, and many interviews. In his book entitled *Nature and Treatment of Mental Disorders*¹⁹ Dr. Moore gives a full report of two such cases. While they are too lengthy to include here, an examination of these cases would be valuable as they present the bibliotherapeutic technique in detail. One of them required eight interviews and the reading of four books before the therapy was completed. These reports make clear the skill in interviewing that is required by the therapist. I should like to emphasize also that the therapist must be thoroughly familiar with the books recommended to the young readers.

THE LIBRARIAN AND BIBLIOTHERAPY

Let us consider bibliotherapy from the standpoint of librarians. Librarians have an excellent opportunity to contribute to the successful work in this field. First, librarians know books and their contents better than any other professional group. Second, since librarians are already working in schools, hospitals, and prisons they are in a posi-

¹⁸*Ibid.*, p.11.

¹⁹Thomas V. Moore, *Nature and Treatment of Mental Disorders* (N.Y.: Grune & Stratton, 1943), especially p.216-32.

tion to aid teachers, doctors, psychiatrists, and psychologists who are working with people having various types of problems.

Can librarians be more helpful in these various situations? The answer is *yes*—but knowing books is not enough. They must know people, too, and understand them and their problems, and should take courses that will increase this understanding.

Our graduate schools offer many courses that would be invaluable in preparing library students for positions as bibliotherapists. I would suggest that such subjects as the following be included in the professional programs: child psychology, child psychiatry, clinical psychiatry, and psychiatric case work. All of these courses would be advantageous to librarians since they would then be prepared to understand the attitudes and behavior of both children and adults. I hope that in the near future our graduate library schools will be making their contribution to the preparation of competent people for bibliotherapy. The effectiveness of bibliotherapy is evident and a larger group of well-trained bibliotherapists would be a major contribution to the welfare of many of our citizens.

Audio-visual Materials and Libraries for Children and Young People

MARGARET I. RUFVOLD

THE WAR HAS brought home to us, more forcefully than anything else, the elemental meaning of communication as the underlying basis of all human community. Now, as we strive to achieve a world community with its need for common ideals and ideas, we are feverishly aware of the vital necessity for the full use of all media so that peoples everywhere may share equally "the right to know."

Those ancient barriers to communication—time and space—have been banished by new and wondrous tools. We have come a long way since the days of the clay tablet, the ballad singers who carried the news, yes, since Gutenberg and the invention of movable type.

It is the function of the library to deal with ideas and their communication no matter what form they take. For this reason, libraries have not limited their services and collections to books alone. Museum materials, charts, maps, plans, broadsides, pamphlets, flat pictures, exhibits of all types, lantern slides, stereographs, story hours and recordings—all have been commonly accepted for many years within the ordinary scope of the library.

RECENT DEVELOPMENTS IN AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS

Recently, through advances in technology and in science, we have been given tools which present ideas even more dramatically by auditory and visual methods.

What was once the magic lantern has become a very modern instrument, the opaque projector, attached to whose lens is a camera shutter that compels quick analysis of projected objects. . . . The models formerly available only in awkward cardboard are now made from clear and colored plastics in sections that can be easily separated. The film-strip is no longer just a series of still-picture discards, but a sequence of well-

integrated color views and diagrams. . . . Efficient optical viewers that only remotely resemble the parlor stereopticon of earlier days provide third dimensional depth for photographic prints.¹

The motion picture film, formerly available only for theatrical use, is now the common instrument in classrooms and homes. Radio television promises an even more vivid sharing of the events of the world, hour by hour. In the not too distant future, the form, color, and sound of what takes place anywhere can be instantly visualized everywhere. Recently a new radio communication system has been developed which can send 1,000,000 words a minute. Known as Ultrafax, "it can transmit twenty 50,000-word novels from New York to San Francisco in only sixty seconds."² So speedy is this device, according to its promoters, that, in comparison, present methods of communication will seem as slow as the ox-cart compared with a stratoliner! Every form of expression will become available to us, direct from studio to classroom or home.

The educational and social implications of these media are being unfolded to us daily through study and research. Teachers, school administrators, leaders in religious education and adult education have accepted the challenge to exploit their educational values. Can librarians of children and youth fail to share this responsibility?

THE ROLE OF THE SCHOOL LIBRARY IN THE AUDIO-VISUAL PROGRAM

This paper is concerned only with audio-visual materials in their relation to children and young people. Therefore, the recent achievements in audio-visual services to adults, offered by public libraries such as those in Cleveland, Dallas, Milwaukee, Charlotte (North Carolina), and a score of others will not be included in this discussion.

Turning our attention first to audio-visual education in our public school systems we can obtain an overview of the present status by examining a recent survey of the N.E.A. Research Division.³ This inquiry, which was published as the December 1946 issue of the *Research Bulletin of the National Education Association*, is primarily a summary of the status quo. As such, it furnishes us with an

¹Walter A. Wittich and John G. Fowlkes, *Audio-visual Paths to Learning* (N.Y.: Harper, 1946), p.x-xi.

²*Indianapolis News*, June 23, 1947, p.1.

³"Audio-visual Education in City-school Systems," *Research Bulletin of the National Education Association*, XXIV (December 1946), 130-70.

insight into what is being done and points out some of the major obstacles to further progress. The findings are a challenge not only to teachers and administrators, but to school librarians who must inevitably share the responsibility for whatever progress or lack of progress there is in our school systems.

In making this study, a questionnaire was sent to all superintendents of schools in cities over 2500 in population. Responses were received from 1037 school systems; these include 11,193 different schools, 208,985 teachers, and 5,875,279 pupils. This means that the programs described in these questionnaires reach more than one-fifth of the nation's entire teaching staff and total pupil enrollment.

The study is concerned with such questions as: How many city school systems have some kind of special provision for audio-visual education? What special equipment and materials are provided? What technical and professional leadership is provided? What service is available with respect to the selection, distribution, maintenance, and use of materials? How much money is spent? To what extent has audio-visual instruction permeated the entire school program? How satisfactory are the audio-visual programs now in operation?

These questions have a familiar sound to school librarians. They are some of the very ones which we ask in our evaluations of school library service. The complete findings of this study will be read with great interest by school librarians, many of whom are already grappling with the obstacles which are regarded by the respondents as most pertinent. These obstacles included teachers' lack of interest and skill, absence of a trained director with time and facilities for a program, shortage of essential equipment, poor physical conditions for projection, lack of funds, and some indifference or even opposition by the administrators.

Librarians know by experience that there is no simple or immediate solution to these problems; they are not very new nor very different from those we have always faced: insufficient budgets, inadequate quarters, lack of trained personnel, ineffective teachers, etc. In accepting the challenge to extend our usefulness into every important educational area, what specific functions must we perform? Wherein can we make our greatest contribution?

In the parlance of the audio-visual field, the three most discussed functions or problems are production, distribution, and utilization.

"And the Greatest of These. . . Is Distribution" wrote one expert in a recent editorial. We quote:

The users of films just are not getting the films they want and need when they want them.

Consider the school user of instructional films, for instance. In how many cases can he select a title from a catalog list and be reasonably sure of having that film for use in his class within a week—or within a month for that matter? We dare say that it's a rare teacher in a rare situation where that can happen. How can a teacher make good use of films unless he can get the right one at the right time?

Consider the adult learner in a Y.M.C.A. for another instance. Just suppose he is trying to plan to use two or three films on the subject of inter-racial relations for some future meeting of his group. He would be, indeed, lucky if he could find all three subjects he wanted listed in any one catalog, and even if he did, his chances of being able to get all three on the same date would be extremely slim. How can he be expected to make good use of audio-visual materials unless such distributional problems are solved so that he can get the films he needs when he needs them? . . .

We recognize that it is far easier to point up a problem than it is to solve it, but let's go back to that hypothetical group leader we mentioned three paragraphs ago. His need for two or three films for a group discussion on inter-racial relations was the same need shared by hundreds of other group leaders. If the distributor had foreseen these needs, he could have had available, already mounted on one reel, three such films as *Americans All* (March of Time), *Brotherhood of Man*, and *The House I Live In*. These would have been announced in catalog listings as a ready-made program suitable for certain specific purposes.

Now this suggestion is not made as a panacea for all distributional problems. . . . There may be better ways. One thing, however, we do feel certain about: the problems of distribution are great, and it is vitally important that solutions be found.⁴

What a challenge this statement is to librarians who, by training and experience, are specialists in distribution. Who is better acquainted than the school librarian with the school curriculum and the needs for instructional materials in each unit taught in a particular school? Who is better acquainted with all of the related materials

⁴Paul C. Reed, "And the Greatest of These . . . Is Distribution," *Educational Screen*, XXVI (June 1947), 300.

and community sources than the school librarian? The school library is open all day, and consultation with the librarian does not necessitate the interruption of class work, as is so often the case when a teacher is requested to administer these materials.

The fact that librarians are accustomed to scheduling and circulating materials does not imply that they personally must deliver equipment, darken the classroom, or project the film or slides. Through good organization, many routine tasks can be delegated to clerks, student assistants, or building mechanics. The librarian who would be effective must keep in proper perspective the total school library program and the goals to be achieved. The equally important functions of selection and utilization must go hand in hand with distribution.

NEWARK PROGRAM

Within the past few years, professional library literature has begun to reflect and describe the various contributions which school librarians are making in this area.⁵ While most school libraries in medium and small cities are still in the experimental stages, a few large city systems have made notable progress in centralizing and integrating audio-visual and library services. One such city is Newark, N.J., where Marguerite Kirk is the Director of the Board of Education Department of Libraries, Visual Aids, and Radio. The administration and the services of this central library reaching out to teachers and pupils through the libraries in each school offer, what seems to us, to be an ideal pattern. This is described in McDonald's study entitled *Educational Motion Pictures and Libraries*⁶ and also in an article by Miss Kirk and others which appeared in the *Forty-second Yearbook* of the National Society for the Study of Education and which was entitled "Others Aids to Learning."⁷ The information in this article is extremely valuable to school librarians who want an overview of the entire field.

A quotation from a recent article by the Assistant Librarian of the Newark Department will point out some of the services of this

⁵Gerald D. McDonald, *Educational Motion Pictures and Libraries* (Chicago: American Library Association, 1942).

⁶*Ibid.*, p.63-75; Appendix C, p.141-163.

⁷Marguerite Kirk and others, "Other Aids to Learning," in *The Library in General Education*, Forty-second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II (Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Pr., 1943), p.176-212.

centralized organization and the manner in which the public library, the museum, and this department cooperate in order to meet the needs of the schools. Mr. Schofield says:

A visit to any one of the 70 schools in Newark provides concrete evidence of the value of such a program. The variety of the audio-visual aids and the ingenious applications which they are given may be seen by looking about in a typical school. In the kindergarten, a director is showing colorful pictures from a favorite story-book by use of an opaque projector. Down the hall in the third grade, where the children are studying Indian lore, the class is examining models of primitive villages, looms, arrows, and other items borrowed from the Newark Museum. In the eighth grade classroom there is a discussion of neighborhood relationships, and one of the older students is about to project the March of Time film, *Americans All*.

Slides of the industries of the city are being viewed in another room. A fifth grade teacher is broadening the perspective of her students' conception of westward expansion in the United States by playing a dramatization from the *Lest We Forget* series of transcriptions. A filmslide projector is in use in another classroom, where the vocational-guidance program has reached the study of radio occupations. One of the most attractive rooms in the building has its many bulletin boards decorated to match the season of the year with large, colorful pictures of spring flowers, borrowed from the Public Library. In other classrooms there is ample evidence of the motive power of audio-visual aids used on previous occasions: illustrated maps, models, and notebooks of student manufacture are on display.

Coordinating these tools of learning is one of the chief functions of our Department of Libraries, Visual Aids, and Radio. It serves as a clearing house of information concerning instructional aids, and also as a depository and distributing center for more than 2000 reels of film, about 25,000 lantern slides, 2 x 2 slides, and filmstrips, and several hundred records. In addition, schools maintain their own basic collections of lantern slides to supply frequently needed aids to learning.

A request to the Newark Public Library or the Newark Museum will bring deliveries of mounted pictures, models, or specimens to the door of any school in the city. . . . The department functions on a continuous, twelve month basis. It is just as active during Christmas, Easter and summer vacations in helping to plan programs for playground, community, and summer school film showings, as it is during the school year.

Keeping the 2500 teachers of the city's schools up to date on new

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material as it becomes available, and orienting new teachers in the school system to its activities and services is another important function. . . . Regular publications of the department such as its catalogs and a monthly bulletin, "Current List of Teaching Aids," help to keep teachers well informed. . . . Facilities and counsel are offered by the department for teachers desiring to create their own materials of instruction. The staff includes a photographer who is available for photographing significant school activities, or developing slides of units of work.⁸

In this brief description by Mr. Schofield, we have an example of the complete role of the library as a communications center coordinated with the curriculums in the schools which are served. The film, the book, the radio, the recording, all are made available to students and teachers at the right time because the important functions of selection, distribution, utilization, and production are performed by a centralized agency.

At the state level I should like to mention the administrative pattern which has been developed in Louisiana where the State Department of Education conceives of school libraries as school centers of communication materials. There, state-aid funds are available for the purchase of library materials without restriction as to format or type. The advisory services of the state school library supervisor include the evaluation of all types of materials; and expert assistance is provided to the school libraries in organizing and using these tools effectively.

The School of Library Service and Training at Florida State University is cooperating with the State Department of Education in a comprehensive plan to provide unified community service including all kinds of materials, audio-visual and verbal, administered by state certified materials specialists and materials supervisors. Professional library education is a prerequisite for these new positions.

THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOL LIBRARIANS SURVEY OF OTHER PROGRAMS

During the past six months the Audio-visual Education Committee of the American Association of School Librarians has been attempting to discover the extent to which individual school librarians are initiating or coordinating the audio-visual programs in their schools. A

⁸Edward T. Schofield, "Newark Offers Audio-visual Aids for Every Need," *School Management*, XVI (1947), 45-46.

notice was run in several library periodicals during February, March, and April 1947, requesting that these librarians send us information. To date approximately seventy-five replies have been received. In addition, the committee members have culled the professional journals for descriptions of these programs. A summary of this information and a few quotations are indicative of the beginnings which have been made. No two patterns of service are identical or complete; yet in each case the librarians are striving to broaden their services.

A librarian in South Carolina whose title is Materials Adviser, Junior High and Elementary Schools writes:

Here this past year a room which seats 75 pupils was equipped with dark shades. Fortunately, this room is located on the first floor and on the shady side of the building.

Each homeroom teacher was asked to recommend two boys for our operators' club. We stipulated that they show some mechanical aptitude and be responsible people. They were given individual and group instruction in operating our various projectors—particularly the 16 mm. motion picture projector. The care with which they have performed their duties in operating these projectors is something to be applauded.

Representative groups from the faculty selected films that they wished shown. These were rented from various agencies—principally from our State University Film Library or secured gratis. One film, *Know Your Library*, purchased for use in both the Junior High and Senior High Schools was used over and over again. That and the new opaque projector, which made it possible to throw a set of catalog cards on the screen, streamlined the unit in teaching the use of the library.

Our problems in audio-visual education are many. Just now we are planning ways and means of in-service training and education of teachers in correct use of these newer devices of learning. We are anxious to locate a school community comparable to ours that has done a good job in setting up a materials center. (We have a total of 7000 pupils, white and Negro, enrolled in two high schools, one junior high, and sixteen elementary schools.)

We are interested also in securing someone to give a series of lectures and demonstrations in the proper use of audio-visual materials.⁹

From a high school librarian in Virginia we received a detailed summary of the library's services and the costs of films, filmstrips,

⁹Quoted from a letter to the Chairman, Audio-visual Education Committee of the American Association of School Librarians.

and slides for the year 1946-47. From October 28 to May 2, eight series of slides, forty filmstrips, and 105 films were shown. All materials were borrowed and scheduled for preview by the librarian. The total number of students attending the showings was 9802 and the total cost for transportation, insurance, etc., was \$27.12.

Many different administrative patterns are being followed. As might be expected, the most extensive programs are those in large city systems with centralized departments. In a few cases, notably Newark (New Jersey), San Francisco, and Santa Monica (California), the Departments of Libraries and Audio-visual Materials are integrated so that there is a direct relationship to the libraries in individual schools. More common, however, is the pattern in which the individual school librarian is the coordinator and works with the recently established audio-visual department serving the entire school system, or with the audio-visual director serving only the single school.

One factor which appears rather significant is the progress being made in laboratory school libraries in teachers' colleges and universities. At Louisiana State University, the Laboratory School Library began to organize and administer audio-visual materials in 1941. By 1946 this collection contained 664 recordings, 443 motion pictures, 1157 standard slides, 195 miniature slides, 475 stereographs, and 116 filmstrips in addition to the book collection of approximately 10,000 volumes. These materials are cataloged, classified, and circulated to students, faculty, and student teachers, either in groups or for individual reference purposes.

Many school libraries are giving reference service in the audio-visual field; e.g., compiling source lists and bibliographies, providing the *Education Film Guide*, *Film and Radio Guide*, *Educational Screen*, *See and Hear*, and other professional periodicals, informing students and teachers about worthwhile radio programs, musical and nonmusical recordings, and lists of 16 mm. motion pictures that can be used by teachers of literature who want children to become familiar with the works of well-known authors.¹⁰ A library which we visited recently contained an extensive card file of profitable school journeys

¹⁰An example of lists of this type is: Robert E. Schreiber, "Literary Works for the Educational Screen," *English Journal*, XXXVI (1947), 29-34. Mr. Schreiber has also prepared a supplement entitled "Further Literary Works on Film," *ibid.*, XXXVII (1948), 94-95.

indicating the purpose of the trip, the person to be contacted for arrangements, the grade level, and an evaluation by the pupils and teachers making the trip. Another librarian is building up an extensive card file listing all available sources of films, slides, transcriptions, exhibits, and print materials on individual countries or regions.

Many school librarians who would like to go beyond this type of reference service and provide the films, slides, and recordings for individual use in the library are handicapped by lack of proper quarters and equipment. A school librarian in Iowa is assisting with the plans for remodeling a library which will include individual listening booths, a projection room, and tables equipped with playback machines. In the not too distant future, libraries will be able to buy small table-mounted projection devices which require no room darkening.¹¹ This type of equipment in reference rooms will greatly facilitate the use of projected materials by individuals.

Children's librarians have discovered that story hour programs in the library are one of the easiest ways to use films.

In Dallas, a long ticket was printed for an entire summer program with titles of stories and films for each week. Each child received a ticket and each week the ticket was punched for attendance. Prize books were awarded for regular attendance.¹²

This library built up a film collection that is widely used by children in schools also. For example, during the month of May 1946, the library provided 182 showings for schools and eighty-five showings for young people outside of schools.

The provision of better screen fare for Picton children is one of the chief aims of the Picton, Ontario, Film Council. Picton's library board, which sponsored this council, also purchased a projector and screen for community use. In addition to members of the library board, the Film Council is made up of representatives of the public, separate, and collegiate school boards, various church organizations, service clubs, and the Home and School Association. A notable feature of the council's plan is the children's shows held each Saturday morning in the library.¹³

¹¹As shown in *See and Hear*, II (January 1947), 26.

¹²Bertha Landers, "Library . . . 1946," *ibid.*, (October 1946), 44-46.

¹³Dorothy Annesley, "Films and Canadian Public Libraries," *A.L.A. Bulletin* XL (1946), 197-98.

RADIO PROGRAMS IN THE LIBRARY

Radio programs for children have been the concern of librarians from the beginning of public broadcasting. Children are being reached by radio through commercial programs over nation-wide networks, through local public broadcasting, through educational broadcasts from universities and colleges with state-wide hookups and FM stations, and through broadcasting within schools.

A children's library authority calls attention to the fact that the "nation-wide hookups present the greatest problems because of the cost of production and the necessity for programs of wide appeal. The most successful have originated in the New York studios, mainly in cooperation with national child welfare agencies and the New York Public Library."¹⁴

Children's librarians throughout the country are actively engaged in conducting programs or in writing scripts for presentation by trained studio personnel. During the past ten to fifteen years, librarians in Denver, Kansas City (Kansas), Indianapolis, Akron, Rochester (New York), and elsewhere have been regular producers of radio broadcasts. Many of the most successful scripts have been collected and published so that they are available for others to use as they are or as patterns for adaptation to local circumstances and talents. Persons who are attempting to write scripts and to broadcast them for the first time will be interested in Julia Sauer's *Radio Roads to Reading*,¹⁵ Katherine Watson's *Once Upon a Time*,¹⁶ and also the *Radio Script Catalog*¹⁷ which lists approximately 1100 annotated radio scripts available on free loan from the Radio Script and Transcription Exchange of the U.S. Office of Education.

Broadcasting within schools along lines of book interest is carried on extensively by school librarians, teachers, and local children's librarians. This type is easily performed and controlled. In some schools boys and girls assist in the programs which adds to the interest. Children greatly enjoy and profit from school broadcasts for which they write the script and take an active part in the dramatization.

¹⁴Effie L. Power, *Work With Children in Public Libraries* (Chicago: American Library Association, 1943), p.108.

¹⁵Julia A. Sauer, *Radio Roads to Reading* (N.Y.: Wilson, 1939).

¹⁶Katherine W. Watson, *Once Upon a Time* (N.Y.: Wilson, 1942).

¹⁷Gertrude G. Broderick, ed., *Radio Script Catalog*. . . (5th ed.; Washington: Govt. Print. Off., 1946).

The University of Wisconsin High School Library has secured radio receiving equipment which permits students to listen to live broadcasts by using the ear phones attached to a table. Four different programs are available simultaneously with the control switch located at the charging desk so that the librarian "issues" broadcasts as she does books.¹⁸

RECORDINGS IN THE LIBRARY

Turning our attention to the field of recordings, I would like to quote part of a letter received from the librarian of a small school of 110 students in Tennessee.

We are attempting to build up a collection of recordings and have acquired six albums of poetry, plays, stories, and speeches; four more albums are ordered. Recordings are used in English classes, assembly programs, and "just for fun." Boys and girls, most of whom come from mountain homes, find it difficult to read and comprehend—recordings make it easier for them to understand and enjoy good literature. The *Robin Hood* recording was used in assembly with an explanation by a sophomore boy—who had never talked in public before—and the audience was especially attentive. Now they want to hear it again.¹⁹

Judging from the number of schools and libraries which are using recordings, it is safe to conclude that librarians purchased many of the twenty-seven million children's discs produced last year! Anyone contemplating a beginning in this area will find very helpful suggestions for handling and securing records in the article entitled "Records Enrich Curriculum," *Library Journal*, September 15, 1946.²⁰ The authors are librarians of the Garden City High School in New York. With the assistance of the teachers in each subject area, they compiled an extensive list of sources of recordings. An excellent tool for the selection of recordings is a list entitled *Recordings for School Use* by J. Robert Miles.²¹ The New York University Film Library, Recordings Division, will furnish free of charge *A Catalogue*

¹⁸William A. Porter, "Audio Materials . . . Supplement to Today's School Library," *See and Hear*, II (May 1947), 44-46.

¹⁹Quoted from a letter to the Chairman, Audio-visual Education Committee of the American Association of School Librarians.

²⁰Mary H. Mahr and Jean E. Crabtree, "Records Enrich Curriculum," *Library Journal*, LXXI (1946), 1174-76.

²¹J. Robert Miles, *Recordings for School Use, 1942* (Yonkers-on-Hudson, N.Y.: World Book Company, 1942).

of *Selected Educational Recordings*.²² A helpful list of records for elementary schools, entitled *Good Library Listening*, was compiled under the direction of Dilla W. MacBean for the Chicago Teacher-Librarians' Club.²³ *Stories on Records* is the title of a list compiled by the Public Library of Freeport, Long Island, New York.²⁴ The Committee on Radio Broadcasting and Recording of the American Library Association Division of Libraries for Children and Young People is encouraging, as one of its projects, the production of recordings of outstanding stories by well-known storytellers. The Gudrun Thorne-Thomsen Album, produced by RCA-Victor and distributed by the American Library Association, is the direct result of the work of this Committee. Plans to promote similar series of stories are underway.

MICROFILM IN THE LIBRARY

In the past, the use of microfilm in libraries has been limited mostly to adult reference and research work. Recently, however, by use of the ceiling projector and microfilmed books, the public libraries of Ann Arbor and Detroit have brought the world of literature to handicapped and bedridden children in their own homes and in hospitals. Pointing up the value of this service, the librarian of Ann Arbor says that dull hours no longer exist for the devotees of the ceiling projector; one of these persons was an eleven-year-old girl who was confined to bed for five months. Miss Hannum explains that:

Because they can operate the projector by a simple push of a switch and a button in a small plastic box, and because they need no one to help them, they will regain confidence in themselves and feel less dependence on others. In the case of the eleven-year-old, the projector is serving as a great stimulation in reading. Anna could not become interested in reading, either on her own or by listening to another read to her. From the first flash of words on the ceiling, she became absorbed and read three books in one week. When she returns to school, she knows she will enjoy her reading class and be a better student.²⁵

²²New York University Film Library, Recordings Division, *A Catalogue of Selected Educational Recordings* (N.Y.: New York University Film Library, 1944).

²³Chicago. Teacher-Librarians' Club, *Good Library Listening: A Selected List of Phonograph Records for Elementary School Libraries*. (rev. ed. Chicago: Board of Education, February 1947).

²⁴*Stories on Records* (Freeport, Long Island, N.Y.: Freeport Memorial Library, n.d.).

²⁵Frances A. Hannum, "Projected Books in Ann Arbor," *A.L.A. Bulletin*, XLI (June 1947), 169.

AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS AND LIBRARIES

NONCOMMERCIAL PRODUCTION

In Indiana a few librarians are reporting their experiences in the production line—handmade slides, schoolmade movies, radio programs, and recordings of school events and of commercial broadcasts which teachers can use again and again after the date of the “live” broadcast. These school librarians are promoting the best use of recordings and radio in their schools by transcribing and cataloging the programs so that the information and the materials are available when they are needed.

Experience has demonstrated that broadcasts, recordings, and film showings for children greatly stimulate the reading of books. On the other hand, librarians who are using these tools emphasize the fact that they are important media in themselves and do not have to be justified on the grounds that they increase the circulation of books.

THE LIBRARIANS' RESPONSIBILITY FOR PARTICIPATION IN THE AUDIO-VISUAL PROGRAM OF THE FUTURE

While the field of production is one in which we cannot all participate directly, it is nevertheless a field in which our contributions can be significant. Children's librarians have greatly influenced the quality of children's books. What about the need for better children's radio and films? By our honest evaluations of these media in terms of the needs of youth we can assist the producers; we can point up areas in the curriculum in which there is a dearth of instructional materials; we can suggest the fallacy of producing classroom films to fit an outmoded curriculum; we can plead that what is needed in films for a concept of one world is something much broader and much less biased than the regionalism and nationalism in our textbooks. We can encourage the production of educational films so broad on context that they examine processes, not in isolation, but in their human settings and in their social significance. It is our role, indeed, to take a serious and active interest in the problems of production.

Recently a young philosopher and historian scolded us openly for being inarticulate in our opinions on books. Would his remarks apply to films and radio as well? Describing the composite librarian of his experience, he said that:

She knows more than many of her readers; she lives among books, and as a presumably cultivated citizen she has an obligation discreetly to make her opinions tell in the vast suffrage that determines the fate of books. Her vote should be cast, not automatically for the most popular, but for what she feels is the best. To remain alive in mind and body a democracy must compare as well as count.²⁶

Fortunately, the American Library Association has an ever-increasing number of members who are making their influence felt in the whole field of communication. Recently Mrs. Patricia Blair has been appointed film library adviser of the A.L.A. to assist in a program to extend library film services throughout the country. The project is made possible through a two-year grant to A.L.A. from the Carnegie Corporation.²⁷ In addition, the Audio-visual Committee of the Association is promoting developments in this field through studies, publications, and institutes. Recently the Carnegie Corporation of New York has granted \$175,000 for a two-year study of how well existing public libraries are serving American communities and "the relation to the library function of newer technical and commercial developments in the field of communication."²⁸ Proposed by the A.L.A. last summer, the survey is being conducted under the auspices of a special committee of the Social Science Research Council with Dr. Robert D. Leigh directing it. The results of this study will have a profound effect upon the evolution, functions, and objectives of the public library, especially in the area of audio-visual services.

During the past five years librarians have been taking a significant part in professional meetings of such organizations as the Educational Film Library Association and the Association for Education by Radio. One of our leaders in library service for children and youth is so tireless in her efforts that we can feel and see the results of her work as we move about in this field. One important result is that we are getting better and better film portrayals of librarians and the services they perform. Perhaps, in the near future we can aspire to a Julien Bryan documentary entitled *Libraries for Children and Youth, U.S.A.* When that happens you will visualize the librarian in the broad role which we have been discussing—and there will be no further need for verbal descriptions such as the one you have just heard.

²⁶Jacques Barzun, *Teacher in America* (Boston: Little, Brown, 1945), p.80.

²⁷See *A.L.A. Bulletin*, XLI (1947), 268.

²⁸"The Public Library Inquiry," *ibid.*, 160.

Publishing Books for Youth

SIRI ANDREWS

MOST OF MY experience with children's books has been with the finished product. During the years I have spent as a children's librarian, editing or compiling lists of children's books for one purpose or another, teaching courses in children's literature, or lecturing about books, my only concern was with the intrinsic value of the content of the book, with a side glance at the format (especially its sturdiness and its over-all appeal to children), and with the value of the book to children or its use with them. I tried to analyze every book for its literary value, its originality, and authenticity. If the book seemed not to meet the highest standards, I tried to determine whether it still might have value for some particular purpose or for certain children or under special circumstances. I knew that there were duplications of subject material, too many books of some types, fiction lacking in literary distinction, commonplace illustrations, flimsy format. I wondered why it was not possible to find books of certain types or on some subjects or for special purposes—such as books for the slow reader or the immature adolescent. In the past two years I have been learning some of the answers to these questions.

PROBLEMS OF MARKET AND COST

I have learned, first of all, that publishing is a business and that economic factors, more often than not, are the controlling elements in what is or is not published. I do not mean this in any derogatory sense, nor do I mean to imply that publishers are crass money seekers, for that is definitely not true. Reputable publishers have high standards, literary and otherwise; on the whole they are an idealistic group, men and women of professional and ethical integrity. Many have unusually keen and sensitive literary perception (how else would new writers ever be recognized and given a chance to be known?); most feel a deep sense of responsibility for the books they publish. The economic factors nevertheless remain a very strong influence, for obviously, if the publisher did not at least meet his expenses, he

would not long be able to maintain himself in business.

One of the first matters to consider, therefore, in deciding whether to publish a book or not, after readers and editors have agreed that the material is good enough to be put into book form, is the nature and the size of the market for the book, that is, who is going to be interested in reading or buying the book, and how large this group is. Will the book be sold mainly in bookstores for home use, or will it have largely a public library, school library, or college library sale? Might it have both kinds of sales, and if so, how large might each be? Which is the more important, the bookstore or the library sale? This depends on the type of book, of course, but it is one of the factors that must be considered. Is the book one which will have quick sales and an ephemeral value, as most books with a timely interest have? Is it a book which will sell in relatively small quantities but over a period of many years—a book of permanent or lasting value? Among books of this kind for children one would find the folk tales and the traditional literature. Publishers need both kinds of books, best sellers or near best sellers, to realize quick returns on their investment, and lasting, substantial books to form a backlog of materials with character and stability.

The market determines the size of the first edition, which is an important element in estimating the cost of the manufacture of the book. One of the larger items in the manufacture of books is the cost of setting the type and making the plates, a cost which is usually paid off with the first edition. If the plate cost is \$1000, to work in round numbers, and the edition is 5000, each copy of the book costs twenty cents, plus paper, binding, and printing; whereas an edition of 10,000 would reduce the cost to ten cents per copy, and so on. Obviously, larger editions are more profitable than small ones, but of the consequences of this, more later.

Another phase of the market to be checked is the availability of other similar material, that is, the competition which this book would meet. Are there other books on the same subject or of the same type? If so, how does this new manuscript differ from already published books? Is there fresh information? Is it presented very differently? Is it for another group of readers? Is it more scholarly, or more popular? In checking this angle one naturally tries to find out if there are any other books for the same age level which would seem to dupli-

cate the material under consideration, and one notes how fully the field has already been covered. This investigation is quite easily made so far as published books are concerned, but there is always the possibility that some publisher is planning a similar book which has not yet been announced. The children's book editors tried to co-operate with each other to prevent unnecessary duplication by reporting to the Children's Book Council when contracts were signed for books. The information was considered confidential, but the intention was that any editor might learn from the Council whether anyone else was planning to do a book in the near future on, for example, Woodrow Wilson. This policy proved better in theory than in practice, however, and the plan has recently been discontinued. It remains a matter of chance whether two publishers are planning similar books at the same time.

A second factor to consider in deciding whether to publish a manuscript is the actual cost of manufacturing the book, since this determines the selling price of the book. In addition to the plate cost, already mentioned, and the cost of paper, printing and binding, which are the actual manufacturing costs of the book, there are such other unavoidable expenses involved in overhead as rent, general office expenses, taxes, insurance, and so on. Too, there is advertising, which includes free review copies and catalogs. The sales department forms an extremely important part in the scheme of things, and is one of the essential expenses in the cost of the book. Other costs in the preparation of the manuscript include such items as criticism by experts in the subject field, if the book is nonfiction, and the making of indexes, glossaries, or other useful additions to the text itself. Every manuscript must also be copy edited and prepared for the printer so that spelling, punctuation, and other characteristics are all consistent and correct. This procedure represents one more step that takes time and costs money. Most books for children require illustrations, and this is still another expense, not only in the artist's fee but in additional plate costs. The jacket or wrapper is also an item in the cost of the book because of the artist's fee, the plates, which are expensive because of the color, and the paper.

Last, but by no means least in the estimate of the cost of the book, is the royalty paid to the author for his work, which in the case of trade books, is usually a percentage based on the list price of the

book. Reduced to its simplest terms the publishing of a book is the result of a contract between the author and the publisher, a sort of partnership in which the author supplies the material and the publisher advances the money to pay for the printing, binding, distribution, and advertising. The sale price of the book must be such that the publisher is reimbursed for the money he has invested in the book, and out of this amount he pays to the author a percentage of the list price for the use of the material. The publisher has as great a stake in the book as the author has, and is as eager as the author to see the book a success. One fact often overlooked is that the publisher does not receive the list price for his book; the publisher sells his books at a discount to jobbers, bookstores, and libraries, and actually receives an average of 57 per cent of the list price of the book. On an edition of 10,000 books which sell at \$2, he does not receive \$20,000 but perhaps \$12,000, more or less. The author, however, will receive about \$2,000 on an edition of this size at this price, if his royalty is the usual 10 per cent. Adding plate cost, paper, presswork, binding, overhead, illustrations, and advertising to the royalty, the publisher breaks even, in this particular case, when he has sold 10,000 copies. After that, although many expenditures remain the same, the plate cost has been paid off, and the publisher begins to make a little money on the book.

In 1946 the Children's Library Association published a folder prepared by Eunice Blake and Elizabeth Riley, *Why Do They Cost So Much?*, which analyzes in graphic form the factors involved in the cost of children's books.¹ This pamphlet is extremely illuminating and helpful, and deserves wide reading and careful study. Although costs have increased in the year since this folder was prepared, the items included and the relative costs remain the same.

The fact that costs of manufacture have increased so greatly in the past year has already had a definite influence on book publishing. Next year there will probably be fewer books published, but at higher prices, and many books already contracted for will be postponed, partly in the hope that costs may not be quite as high later, but partly because the publisher has only so much capital to work with and if the cost of every book is greatly increased, the money will stretch over fewer books. If he has \$100,000 and it costs \$100,000 to

¹*Why Do They Cost So Much?* (Children's Library Association, American Library Association, 1946). Division of Libraries for Children and Young People.

produce ten books (too low a figure to be a true one) he can publish only ten, even though a year or two ago, he might have done fifteen for the same amount of money. This condition means, obviously, that five books which might have been published a year or two ago must now be rejected or postponed.

What books will be postponed or will not be accepted in the first place? Briefly, the books will be those that are the most expensive, those with the smallest market, and those by new and unknown authors. The publisher will naturally not wish to put a very large part of his working capital into a few expensive books; the return is slow and uncertain, and whatever his interests he cannot tie up large sums in a problematical future. A loss to the book world, and often to the art world, too, will result. There will be fewer picture books for children, especially books in color and those of particular merit but narrow market. Just as serious will be the loss of books which may be of exceptional value but of limited appeal—scholarly books, essays, philosophy, poetry, and similar types. Among children's books this means fewer folk and fairy tales. A serious loss to the literary world may also result from the inability of the publisher to take a chance on young or new authors whose first books would probably sell only in small editions but who need that recognition (and perhaps financial return) in order to fulfill their early promise. This situation is discouraging to beginners and means stagnation to literature as well. There will be little new writing or experimentation, but instead a levelling out to reach a larger audience with the older and more familiar forms of writing or with timely and often ephemeral material. Large editions of books by already well-known and established authors will be considered particularly desirable because of a maximum of certainty in the returns and a minimum of risk. The importance of best sellers may be overrated because of their large editions, and the value of a new intellect may be lost because the high cost of a small edition may make it an unprofitable business venture. If this condition were to continue indefinitely the prospect for beginning writers and artists would indeed be dismal; but we cannot believe that it will continue.

The publishers are attacking these problems with all the energy and intelligence they can command. Certain factors are beyond their control: the wages paid printers and binders which are a substantial

part of the cost of the book, and the cost of paper, cloth, and other materials. Publishers are trying to cut their overhead expenses by office economies, by sending out fewer review and free copies of books, and by other means. In some cases, they are reluctantly revising their royalty scales, sometimes offering lower royalties or a straight royalty instead of payment on a sliding scale. In the children's book field, author and artist often share royalties, since the illustration is such an important part of the book.

The format of the book is also under scrutiny in the search for economies in the cost of manufacture of books. Since both children's librarians and children's book editors have been very much concerned with the rising prices and higher costs, the Book Production Committee of the Children's Library Association this year sent out a questionnaire to about one hundred fifteen children's and school librarians on this matter. The Committee hoped, by presenting the problem to the librarians, to get suggestions and advice from them which could be passed on to the children's book editors for their mutual profit in the near future. The response was quite gratifying, and the results were most interesting. The first question asked of the librarians was whether they preferred good standards of book format maintained at higher prices, or more economical format at the present price levels; more than two to one voted for good format even though prices had to be higher. Certain economies which might be employed were suggested for their consideration and opinion. The use of board bindings instead of cloth was not a popular idea, but many felt that cloth back strips would at least help to overcome the disadvantages of the board bindings in the library. Almost everyone was willing to consider narrower margins, in the interest of saving paper, on condition that the inside margin was not cut. Most did not object to the suggestion that there be fewer illustrations in the books for older boys and girls; some suggested headpieces only, or a frontispiece. Many said that colored illustrations were not necessary in books for older children, and even that color had been overdone in books for small children. Practically all agreed to the use of plain instead of decorated end papers, and favored simpler and less expensive book jackets. These practical reactions showed a firm adherence to the fundamentals of a good book, and a willingness, too, to part with the nonessentials. The suggestions will be closely studied by the

children's book editors and no doubt will be reflected in the books to be published in the next several years. The results all added up to a plea for better and fewer books.

Having fewer books, however, does not necessarily mean having better books. Larger editions may be one result of publishing fewer titles; and this may lead to an emphasis on books which will have a very wide appeal and the neglect of some books which would reach a limited audience but would mean a great deal to that small group. Despite all the care that is taken, every book is still a gamble on the part of the publishers; putting all one's eggs in one basket, or possibly two, is or may be more risky than spreading the gamble over several or many books. A publisher usually prefers, therefore, a somewhat longer list with a good deal of variety as to subject matter, style, and age groups, in order to reach as wide a market as possible. Some of the books having a smaller market will, in a sense, be subsidized by those with a very wide appeal. If fewer books were published, those with the widest appeal, the "safest" books, would be given preference, but they are not necessarily the best.

THE SUBJECT MATTER OF BOOKS

Having discussed the problems of market and of cost, let us now consider the subject matter of the books. Actually, appraisal of the content of a book comes first in the publisher's course of action, but having decided that the material is good and desirable, the publisher must look into these other factors before final action is taken. If market and cost are satisfactory, the manuscript is reviewed again before being accepted for publication. It is read critically once more, discussed with the author, and then often rewritten or revised. Non-fiction is frequently read by experts in the subject field; sometimes it is tried out with children, too, though that is not always the case. Fiction, as well as other types of books, is often read by book reviewers, librarians, booksellers, or teachers for opinions and criticism. Much care and thought go into the consideration of a manuscript before it is accepted for publication; the editor and the publisher must have faith in the value of the material before they decide to add it to their list. Equal care goes into the remaining steps before the manuscript becomes a book, that is, meticulous copy editing, decisions about appropriate format and illustrations, the need for an

index or other supplementary material, careful proofreading, and thoughtful arrangement of illustrative material. Finally, at long last, one has a book.

Let us now consider some of the books which do not get published, and why. As I said in the beginning, I used to wonder why there were few or no books on certain subjects or of certain types, and I have begun to learn why. In addition to the reasons already discussed, a limited market which would mean a small edition and therefore prohibitive costs of production, there is one other very large and important factor—what material is actually available? What are authors writing or willing to write or able to write? Writing is creative work; one cannot tell an author to write a book for a certain age group or for a certain purpose or on a certain subject and expect a good book to turn up in a few months. That will happen only if the author happens to want to write what is suggested; the impulse must come from an inner urge to write on that subject. There must be a personal enthusiasm and interest back of the writing, or it will be dull and without life. It is true that there are successful so-called hack writers who can turn out acceptable books of factual material on request, but even then there must be some initial interest in the subject. It is impossible to get a good book of fiction or fantasy made to order. An editor may tell a writer what sort of thing he would like to publish if he could find it, but unless the idea strikes a spark in the author, or fires his imagination to creative action, that gap in the publisher's list is apt to remain unfilled. The publisher is thus limited by the material available as well as by other factors. In children's books a dearth of really good fantasy and of good humorous stories still remains; there are not enough good modern realistic stories or lively convincing adventure stories, or good history and other non-fiction in sufficient quantities. But try to find them!

In the past year or more I have read over five hundred manuscripts. The great majority of these works have been talking-animal stories, usually quite short and without a shred of originality, small picture books similar to hundreds of others already published (not as good as most of them), verse which is unimaginative doggerel, fantasy of a self-conscious or tongue-in-cheek variety, and magazine-length realistic stories. If you feel that published books are not all they should be, perhaps you should be grateful for what has not been

permitted to ever reach the bookstores and libraries!

Why does this situation exist? Why are there not more able people writing for children and young people? I cannot help thinking that one reason is that children's books have not yet come into their own; there is too little prestige attached to being the author of a children's book, no matter how good it may be. Too many people still feel that children's books are unimportant, although how it is possible for any thoughtful person to feel that a child's reading is a small thing is hard to understand. The relatively small space allotted to the reviewing of children's books in all reviewing media and the slight attention paid in most cases to the qualifications of the reviewers of children's books give evidence that the influence of books on children is underestimated. Many periodicals which review books regularly never review children's books, although it is quite likely that the majority of their readers are parents who, we might assume, have some interest in their children.

Another, perhaps more valid, reason for the shortage of able writers comes from the fact that the financial returns on the writing of children's books are relatively small; at least the immediate returns are small, for children's books seldom become best sellers and most children's books are published in comparatively small editions. The good books live for years and are a continual source of income, but this is a slow process and the income is large only when the author has a long list of successful books. The author must usually have some other source of income until he can build up his writing income. Many potential writers therefore are lost to us because they cannot carry a job and write on the side.

Some people have a romantic idea about the charms of a literary life and frequently they are the people who write the short stories and fantasies and verse which I mentioned earlier. They are seeking a short quick way to what they think is fame and fortune, although they are without writing ability, creative imagination, or the perseverance required to do more substantial work. Truly creative imagination is necessary to good writing, and it is a rare quality; it is also a quality which cannot be trained or developed, but is innate. The ability to do real research, a quality which is necessary to another kind of good writing, is also rare. It is often true that the people who have these qualities prefer to write for adults instead of for children

or young people because they feel that the financial returns are greater and the prestige higher.

Publishers, editors, librarians, reviewers, and others interested in children's reading should consider this problem seriously and determine what might be done to overcome it and how to encourage the best creative minds to use their writing gifts to produce books for children as well as for adults. Perhaps writers should be reminded of all the good authors who have written successfully for both adults and children: Rachel Field, James Thurber, E. B. White, A. A. Milne, Walter de la Mare, Carl Carmer, Carl Sandburg, Constance Rourke, Hendrik Van Loon, Walter Edmonds, Howard Fast, Dorothy C. Fisher, Esther Forbes, John Buchan, John Masefield, Phil Stong and others (not to mention Thackeray, Lamb, Kipling, Stevenson, Mark Twain, and Selma Lagerlöf). Surely their books for children have not lessened their stature as literary artists.

Writers should also be helped to see the value to themselves in writing for children—in the long life of the book and in the love children have for the creators of their favorite books—the value to future generations in creating good readers who will sometime read the adult books of these writers, and in influencing the child's character and his interests. These are the intangible benefits which are at the same time the most lasting and most fundamental.

More tangible and more practical rewards, of course, would come from efforts to help the writer to greater financial independence by offering higher royalties and by achieving larger sales and larger editions.

These are serious aspects of the publishers' problem of getting good material for children and young people and of finding good authors. We need to appeal to the authors' sense of responsibility toward the growing generation, to increase the prestige of children's books, and to raise the financial returns for writers.

HOW LIBRARIANS CAN HELP PUBLISHERS

How can librarians help publishers to improve, in time, the quality and variety of books for children? In the first place, I think nothing is more valuable than a close analysis of every book, followed by definite and constructive criticism that is not just a summary of the contents or the plot. This form of criticism requires a thoughtful

reading of the book against a knowledge of children's books in general. I wish more reviewers had some background in children's literature; children's librarians do have, and their criticisms should be particularly valuable. I am sorry to say that I do not think they always are valuable; sometimes they are much too hasty and superficial. Good constructive criticism is of great benefit to the publisher. In addition, it helps to sell the best books, with emphasis on *best*; this effect not only provides an encouragement to the authors and the publishers who are conscientiously trying to produce good books, but also contributes directly to the survival of the good books, to the rejection of the poor ones, and to the construction of a solid foundation of good reading for coming generations.

Sound criticism comes first. If librarians will then follow this up by buying only the best, and in quantities, we will have tangible evidence of the recognition of the most worth-while books for children. Librarians can help the cause by not reviewing, listing, or buying the cheap and gaudy books, the commonplace, and the superficial.

Librarians can also perform a service by giving new authors and illustrators a chance, by not concentrating all their attention on known writers and artists, good as these may be, or on reprint editions of the old classics. These other books are important, too, but new writers need to be encouraged and developed, and modern children need modern books, not just the ones we and our parents liked as children. The suggestion has been made that there should be more new editions of old books and fewer new titles. This policy seems to me neither feasible nor desirable; it would lead, as I have implied before, to stagnation, and it would never develop any writers for the future. One reason for the great number of inexpensive reprints of old titles is that these books are in the public domain, out of copyright protection, and therefore do not require the payment of royalty. The publisher takes all the profit. Living authors in the meantime are deprived of a hearing and an income unless they too are given a chance.

Librarians should also write to publishers about books, telling them why they consider certain books good and what is wrong with others. If the books they want are not being published, librarians should suggest to the publishers the types of books or the kinds of subject matter needed.

Librarians, I know, are already doing what I mention next, but I think it requires further emphasis. I am referring to the need to educate mothers, teachers, and other book buyers as to what is best in books for children and the value of reading in children's lives. Through lectures, booklists, reviews, and other means, librarians can provide this essential information. In the long run the book buyers determine what the publishers produce. The librarians are the largest book buyers and have the widest influence, through their own buying as well as through their contacts with a reading and book-buying public.

To summarize briefly: first, the publishers really do want the best in the way of books for children, but they are limited by the material available, by costs of manufacture, and by the market; second, authors must be encouraged to write for children by providing them with better financial returns and greater prestige, and by convincing them that they are performing a fine public service in helping children to develop good reading tastes and wholesome interests; and third, librarians can help to raise the quality of children's books by constructive criticism, by discriminating buying, and by educating the book-buying public to higher standards.

PART THREE

*Libraries for Youth as Agencies
of Communication*

Making Libraries Accessible to Youth

RUTH ERSTED

IT IS AN indisputable part of the credo of all librarians that making books and libraries accessible to all people will help to produce a better world. Librarians in schools, librarians working with children and young people in public libraries are no exception, for we all believe that the materials of communication are an essential part of the equipment needed to help boys and girls become better citizens and healthier, happier people.

This belief has been reiterated in more detail by many statements which give the broad over-all objectives of libraries—to furnish books as the means of extending experiences and as aids to thinking,¹ to furnish information on all subjects, to provide the means of self-education, to stimulate continuous education, to help men and women participate intelligently in a democratic society, to furnish good reading for pleasure, to encourage an appreciation of aesthetic experiences—these and many other similar pronouncements are familiar expressions to all of us. They are such an intrinsic part of the thinking of all librarians of today that we take them for granted, perhaps too much so.

If we were to look back 200 years (a period so short that many people in the profession today have lived more than a fourth of that time) we would find these ideas quite out of keeping with that age. Except for a few visionaries, no one in 1747 was thinking of the importance of libraries and books and schools for *all* of the people, much less promoting them. There were no libraries for children or young people, and considering how few books there were for the young and of what poor quality, we should probably not have wished for children's libraries.

¹Louis R. Wilson, in the "Introduction" to *The Library in General Education*, National Society for the Study of Education, Part II (Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Pr., 1943), p.6.

A hundred years later, in 1847, the picture showed definite improvement. Though the public library movement had its first big impetus about 1850, several libraries for children had been founded in the early years of the century and by 1810 at least one man was an ardent advocate of libraries in schools. The philosophy at the root of our present day thinking was getting into general circulation, for the idea that universal education is the necessary accompaniment of democratic government was being talked about by many people other than the leaders.

Today the library is an essential part of the educational resources of the nation. It has grown with the school and the college, and shares with them the momentous responsibility for helping to maintain and to promote our heritage of democratic freedom and opportunity. This glance at the past may well convince us that we have come far in the development of library facilities and services for all of the people, but a knowledge of the present can never permit us to become complacent about it.

SOURCES FROM WHICH BOYS AND GIRLS OBTAIN BOOKS

The determination of the accessibility of libraries and materials to children and young people can be gauged only in the broadest terms, for surveys and statistical studies are generally lacking, particularly if we rule out those which are out-of-date, incomplete, or inaccurate. (This lack of concrete information about resources is especially regrettable considering the detailed facts that are essential for systematic planning.) The term accessibility as used here refers generally to the agencies and facilities through which available materials (those already in print) are distributed to readers. In a broader sense accessibility could include everything that can be done to bring books and people together, but the narrower definition has been chosen because a discussion of the other would necessarily run the library gamut from the planning of attractive rooms to reading guidance.

Although a review of the research studies made in libraries provides evidence that, particularly in the past twenty years, the main sources of books for boys and girls have been the school and public libraries, there are also many other agencies through which youth has access to materials. The number, or perhaps more correctly, the type of commercial outlets for book distribution has been expanding in

recent years. In common with bookstores or book departments, the emphasis on the types of material provided in these outlets is adult rather than juvenile titles, but it is possible to buy the latter in drug stores, railway stations, newsstands, mail order houses, and, of course, in ten cent stores. The growth of book clubs for boys and girls within the past few years has been phenomenal, and at present there are twelve designed to meet the needs of young readers. Two of the clubs cater to the interests of the preschool child, while another tries to select books from the current output for adults which are suitable for introducing young people to mature, contemporary literature. The total number of young readers being reached through these clubs apparently is not obtainable, but one organization gave its subscription list as 50,000 thirty days after it had started.

Noncommercial organizations, other than school and public libraries, must also be included in a compilation of the over-all picture, although the number of books available from home libraries, scout troops, clubs, churches, and museums is relatively small by comparison with the two main sources. According to the Mater² study of Chicago high schools, and the Waples and Carnovsky³ study of two New York high schools, the school library was the source of the largest proportion of nontextbook publications read by the students, with the public library and the home ranking about equally for second place. In the study of the New York high schools, where economic backgrounds were higher than in all but one of those schools in the Chicago study, the home ranked much higher as a source of materials, and the proportion of publications obtained here was about the same as that for school libraries.

ACCESSIBILITY OF BOOKS AND LIBRARIES TO CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE

The extent to which public library facilities are available to the people of the United States, particularly to adults, has been the subject of surveys and statistical compilations time and again, but a search for similar comprehensive data on service to children and young people through public or school libraries is neither rewarding nor satisfying. Even though the U.S. Office of Education is now

²Wilma S. Mater, "Sources From Which Chicago High School Students Obtain Reading Material" (Unpublished master's thesis, University of Chicago, 1943).

³Douglas Waples and Leon Carnovsky, *Libraries and Readers in the State of New York* (Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Pr., 1959).

compiling a collection of basic up-to-date public library data, the results are not apt to be too useful for our purposes, because the standardized statistical report blank is not designed to collect much information on library work with children. There are only four questions asked that bear any relationship to service to children: the number of books loaned to children for home use, number of registered borrowers, number of books in the juvenile collection, and the number of children's librarians. No mention is made of library work with young people. However, a study of the various kinds of statistical reports on public libraries or the literature making use of them makes it possible to draw some deductions of use here.

The Equal Chance, published by the American Library Association in 1943, succinctly reminds us that "There are thirty-five million people in the United States who have no public libraries within reach." Approximately one person in three has access to a good library, another third of the people have inadequate service, and the remaining third have no public library within reach. This is another and forceful way of saying what we all know, that American public libraries present a picture of great extremes. In the libraries reported as having inadequate resources, in all probability the resources for children are inadequate, too, though this does not necessarily follow, anymore than we can be sure that public libraries with good resources of necessity have good service for children.

Pertinent data about the accessibility of school libraries are perhaps even more difficult to locate, for no complete, over-all study has ever been made. The most comprehensive reports have come from the U.S. Office of Education, the latest one being for the school year 1941-42. Unfortunately, much of the data is invalidated because out of approximately 8000 school systems in the United States only about three-fourths of them answered the questionnaire. There are other discrepancies not always attributable to the schools, which also make these statistics difficult to use, but the results still offer the only available ones we have for use in constructing a nation-wide picture of school library service. According to the 6000 school systems reporting, 92 per cent of the schools in this group have some form of library service. It is important to note that in the remaining 8 per cent of the schools reporting, there were ten times as many pupils without library service in the rural areas as there were in the cities. A more

MAKING LIBRARIES ACCESSIBLE TO YOUTH

accurate, though less encouraging, interpretation of these statistics can be obtained by using the number of pupils instead of the number of school systems. Thus "50.8 per cent of *all* pupils (24,562,473) had centralized library service or classroom collections only." The information (or the lack of it) available on library service to the remaining number of pupils (49.2 per cent) makes it necessary to doubt the existence of either library service or library facilities for most of these boys and girls.

An exact comparison of the 1941-42 statistics with those collected for earlier reports is not possible because of a lack of uniformity in the types of statistical information called for. A comparison of total book stocks may be permissible, and it gives one indication of the rapid growth of school libraries. In 1929 there were approximately 13,000,000⁴ volumes in school libraries, while in 1934-35 the number was 28,300,000,⁴ and in 1941-42, 52,350,302.⁵

While they are not easy to obtain nor do they offer a complete record, the annual reports of many states, particularly where there are state school library supervisors, give further evidence of the growth of school libraries, especially in the past decade. In North Carolina, for example, the number of volumes in the school libraries in 1935 was 1,279,441, while in 1945 the total was 3,065,903. In 1935 the number of books per pupil was 2.3 while in 1945 it was 4.45. The average amount spent per pupil in 1935 for library books and magazines was 15c and in 1945 it was 57c.⁶ Thus the statement made by Joeckel in 1938 to the effect that the school libraries constituted the most rapidly growing group in the United States may still be true today.

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN GROWTH OF THE SCHOOL LIBRARY AND MODERN EDUCATIONAL METHODS

There are many reasons for this growth of school libraries: the influence of the Evaluative Criteria prepared by the Cooperative Study on Secondary Schools, the interest of the regional accrediting associations, the growing number of state and city supervisors, and until

⁴Carleton B. Joeckel, *Library Service* (Washington: Govt. Print. Off., 1938), p.21.

⁵Nora E. Beust and Emery M. Foster, "Statistics of Public School Libraries, 1941-42," in U.S. Office of Education, *Biennial Surveys of Education in United States, 1938-40 and 1940-42*, II, Chap.8 (Washington: Govt. Print. Off., 1945), p.1.

⁶*State School Facts*, VIII (Raleigh, N.C., State Department of Public Instruction, July 1946).

the war years, the increasing number of trained school librarians. However, important as these factors are, the changes taking place in instructional methods and school organization are even more prodigious in their implications, and as librarians in schools and public libraries we dare not fail to be sensible of these changes unless we wish to invite trouble or even disaster.

Let us take another backward look, this time at a school and its library of twenty-five or thirty years ago. It will have to be a high school rather than an elementary one for there were no centralized libraries for grade school youngsters at that time. I think I can best illustrate this scene by recalling my own high school, which in all probability is so much like the one most of you went to that you will be right at home. As freshmen we enrolled for the subjects English 1, ancient history, algebra, and either a science or a language. My elective was physiology. During the first day of the English classes we received a copy of *Ivanhoe*, to be read by all the members of the group, ten pages today, twelve tomorrow. The assignment in algebra was the first ten problems in the book; in ancient history we were to read the first chapter in the text (on the morrow we recited that chapter according to the degree with which we had memorized it); and in physiology, well, I don't remember my first lesson, but shortly thereafter I was memorizing the bones of the body.

An interesting program? It probably could be under certain kinds of instruction, but it wasn't. It did meet what the college preparatory association generally thought essential—"good mental training" they called it. Now, let's go to the library. Of course, as pupils we had no reason for going, either before or after we got there. Our teachers didn't send us, at least not very often, and the book collection guarded by a librarian seated firmly behind the desk was a conglomeration of sample texts, sets of books, and many classics in fine type and drab bindings. Certainly it had no appeal for lively youngsters of thirteen, and the librarian's knowledge of adolescent psychology wouldn't have given us any guidance even if the selection of materials had been attractive and appropriate.

And yet we loved the library. Dingy and dull as it was it offered an opportunity to meet our friends and to talk about boys and clothes and parties. I also know now that this school was considered above average because it did have a room labelled "library."

For us as sophomores and then as upper classmen, the picture changed but little. We had book reports—those annoyances that came every six weeks. In junior English I remember there were less than six of us who read the books, for most of the class thought it a complete waste of time, especially when they could go to the public library and get the last volume of a set containing a synopsis of practically every book on the list. Occasionally, we also had a term paper. After trying to find the references at the school library we had to go to the public library, although what we got there was adult material pretty generally out of our mental reach.

Does the school library just described look the same today? There are too many changes for all of them to be described or even listed in one paper, but certainly a most important one concerns the collection of materials. The library has books on every subject of interest to boys and girls—books of reference, biography, current science, boat making, music, and certainly books of fiction, for these are just as important as the others. The librarian uses all of these materials in helping the school educate each boy and girl enrolled.

Even with the admission that the contrasts between schools are as great now as they were twenty-five years ago, the average high school of today bears more resemblance to the second description than the first one. The past fifteen years in particular have marked a period of re-evaluation, an examination of philosophies and curriculums and a search for the educational policies best suited to the needs of a modern democracy. The American people have long been committed to the principle that all of the children and young people of this country, regardless of race, creed, color, place of residence, or economic status are entitled to an education and to equal educational opportunities. This statement is not one that has ever been fully realized, but we do have the proof for some changes. One of the most significant examples of this growth came in the early 1930's when, from 1929 to 1935, a period of only six years, the enrolment of the public high schools increased by over one and a half million pupils. Whatever the reasons for this growth, and we all recognize many, the planning which is done today must take these additional pupils into consideration. It is no longer true that education at the secondary level is considered a special privilege and one designed chiefly for those entering the professions. Today our plans must include all

young people, for they come from every level of society and may rightfully expect to receive an appropriate answer to their needs.

The problems common to all American youth have now become the center of the curriculum. Mere book knowledge, which was of major consideration in the curriculum of twenty-five years ago, has given way to a consideration of the functions of education in contemporary society and the methods of use in preparing children of varying abilities, interests, needs, and levels of maturity to participate in this society. One of the core curriculums developed in the Denver public schools illustrates the breadth of subject matter covered.

In a unit on Personal Living the subject agreed on as worthy of first consideration by the pupils and their teachers was called "Understanding Ourselves." This was to be developed by discovering the interests and aptitudes of the individuals in each specific group.

The second unit concerned the development of interests and appreciations already held by the students, and the exploration of others such as reading, gardening, painting, singing, dancing, nature study, and physical sciences.

The third unit developed maturing appreciations of the resources which make life worth living, such as creative expression of others in the arts and literature, the world of nature and science, and learning how to make the most of themselves in appearance, poise, and social adequacy.

Could such a program be carried on without a school library, or without the services which a school librarian gives with a variety of materials for recreation as well as instruction? Indeed not. The school library supervisor in Denver says,

However, this rethinking of the educational program in terms of the needs, problems, desirable experiences of young people, as well as in terms of subject-matter, has been as stinging a challenge to the school library as it has been to other departments in the schools. Library resources have been inadequate, in kind and quantity, to respond at once to the new demands. The pattern of service has had to be changed somewhat and the amount increased. The potentialities of the library in the new program have had to be envisioned and interpreted to pupils, teachers, administrators, and sometimes parents.⁷

⁷National Commission on Cooperative Curriculum Planning. *The Subject Fields in General Education* (N.Y.: Appleton-Century, 1941), p.206.

This program of the Denver public schools is not unique. Many schools are carrying out similar ones, though unfortunately it is also true that many others are not. What does the so-called average or typical school do? Probably no one person knows enough about all of the schools in the United States to be able to answer that question with any degree of accuracy, but an analysis of one's own state or community and a comparison with others would prove unquestionably that a large majority of schools, if not all of them, are in some way affected by modern educational trends. The recognition of individual differences, and of the varying abilities of boys and girls (in one grade the range of ability in reading, in arithmetic, or in any other subject can vary as much as five grades), recognition of the teaching of children rather than subjects, recognition of the development of the whole child, recognition of the use of a variety of materials in place of complete dependence upon one textbook, recognition of emphasis upon the child's participation in democratic processes as training for good citizenship—all of these trends and many more are in evidence everywhere. Important to us as librarians is the relationship of the library to all of these changes.

OTHER RECENT DEVELOPMENTS IN MAKING MATERIALS ACCESSIBLE

Looking at the more recent developments in public library service, the establishment of young people's rooms appears to be outstanding. Since a complete description of this type of provision will be given later in this book by Miss Scoggin, only a brief review is needed here. There are about 160 youth rooms in the United States today, most of them in large cities—New York, Cleveland, Pittsburgh and Detroit—but many other libraries in smaller communities have established service to young adults. Some of the most popular activities in these centers have been group discussions on subjects selected by the boys and girls themselves, the showing of films, film forums, and the "Great Books" programs.

Everyone familiar with the total library picture in the United States today is aware of large units of library service as one of the newer ideas for making materials more accessible to all people. That this emphasis comes almost entirely from public librarians thinking largely in terms of service to adults is not a credit to those of us working with children and young people. That there are important in-

dividual instances where this charge is not true no one would deny; but school and children's librarians have not assumed sufficient responsibility for the planning on a nation-wide basis of complete library coverage to young people. The task is not an easy one. We need a wealth of information we do not have; we also need a greater willingness to look with objectivity at the many problems involved.

It is in the rural areas where half of our people live that we find a majority of those without library service. Fortunately we also find the best examples of county and regional service to young people there, although the number of libraries is far too small. Among those known to all of us are the multicounty service initiated by the Tennessee Valley Authority in Tennessee, the regional systems and demonstrations in North Carolina and Georgia, and the county libraries of California.

There are other evidences, perhaps less well known, of state or regional plans and proposals, or improvements in existing arrangements for making materials more accessible to boys and girls. Indiana has charted a system which divides the state into eight or nine regions, and in each a teachers college or a university will serve as the central cooperating agency for service to the schools. Tennessee has recently obtained funds from the legislature for an enlarged extension program. Georgia has a centralized cataloging service to schools. Many states are experimenting with cooperative service to rural schools through contractual arrangements with existing public libraries or through the offices of county superintendents.

The number of state school library supervisors has now increased to twenty, and as a result all of the states in the Southern Association of Secondary Schools have librarians in this position. The number of city supervisors is also growing, a move which is particularly advantageous for the development of elementary school libraries which is still far behind that of the high schools.

Two of these elementary supervisors, one in a city system and the other in a town of 25,000, are giving noteworthy demonstrations of the growth of libraries in grade schools. In Chicago in 1935, out of a total of 333 schools there were only thirty with centralized elementary school libraries; today there are 312. There are 180 teacher-librarians giving full-time service and seventy-five more spending from 40 to 60 per cent of the school day in the library. The distinctive work which

the Chicago teacher-librarian group is doing and the enthusiastic results it has produced are apparent from their radio program "The Battle of Books," the selected list of phonograph records for use with younger children, and the scrap book which won the 1946 John Cotton Dana Publicity Award for school library service.

In Rochester, Minnesota, an elementary school library supervisor was employed only four years ago. A year later she prepared a five-year plan which would provide for a centralized library in each of the six grade buildings, a book budget of one dollar per pupil with extra funds for magazines, pamphlets, encyclopedias, and supplies, and a trained staff of four librarians, one cataloger, and one clerical worker. Today there are three trained people on the staff administering a collection of 10,000 books and a large variety of other materials for eighty teachers and 2000 pupils.

There is also a recent change in the public school program of Rochester which should be mentioned here because it is an important trend in modern education that holds implications for the library. A twelve-month school year has been inaugurated. The plan is known as the extended school program and its chief purpose is to provide the "educational services deemed necessary to fill the greatest summer-time needs of youth."⁸ All members of the staff are employed on a twelve-month basis, with one month's paid vacation. Provision is made not only for a complete program of recreation including music, crafts, drama, and athletics, but also for classes in typing, a skill which most students want but do not find enough time to take during the regular school year. The plan provides as skillfully for the growth of the teacher as for the student; curriculum workshops give the faculty time to work together on educational objectives and new courses of study, and, let us hope, the teachers have time to read more of the books for children, while the librarians are adding to their knowledge of educational practices. Formal summer school study and planned travel are no longer a part of the teachers' education which must come in a payless vacation period, for these too are considered a vital part of the extended school program.

Another important educational trend with implications for the library is the community school program. The Milwaukee public

⁸W. H. Gaumitz, "A Senior High School Extends Its Program," *School Life*, XXIX (1947), 23-24.

schools are noted for theirs, though the idea has been tried in many other places, including Minneapolis. Because the plan will be elaborated on in another chapter of this book it will be mentioned here only because it represents an extension of the school day, which in turn may have far-reaching consequences for library service.

So far accessibility has been considered only in terms of the external situations, but there are also unsolved internal problems. The very large school has special ones of its own, just as the smallest school does. No school of several thousand pupils can be served by one library, for the room is either too small or too large—too small to accommodate the students who want to use it or too large to allow the librarian to give help to individual students. The organization of multiple library units either by subjects or grades offers a promising solution.

In the George Washington High School in Indianapolis, the central library is supplemented by another one especially organized for the 1875 students enrolled in social science courses, and also by a third room for the science department's library. The subject library plan has the advantage of enabling the librarian to concentrate on the materials in one field of knowledge, while the organization by grade level helps the librarian to specialize in the problems and needs of one age group.

Other accessibility problems, again of most immediate concern to the large schools, though certainly not exclusively so, include programming and room collections. Many schools need to be more certain that no student's program keeps him from having access to the library at least several times a week. The advantages of frequently changed classroom collections, made up of books from the library, also need further exploration as does the question of how best to provide books and other materials in study rooms.

NEED FOR FUTURE PLANNING

How convenient it would be if we could translate all of these kinds of libraries and library services into figures and total them on the adding machine. Making a summary of the accessibility of library materials to youth is not an easy task; many of the details important to all of us have not been described here and many more, not easily obtainable, would be useful. But without all of the information we

wish we had, I believe it is still possible to say that the number of boys and girls in the United States today who are without access to reasonably good school or public libraries can be estimated easily at half of the total. Almost without exception the best facilities in both school and public libraries are in the larger towns or cities, and yet it is extremely doubtful if the librarians in any community in the United States would say that they were completely satisfied with the present service.

In any consideration of proposals for the future which will make libraries more accessible to youth, there are two goals of librarians in schools and public libraries that must form the basis of our thinking. First, we want to give all children and youth the best service possible, the kind of service which meets their needs as children and young people. Second, we want to develop in young people a knowledge and an appreciation of the libraries and their services, an understanding that is so thorough and well grounded that boys and girls will grow into adults who are lifelong users of libraries. Undeniably, this calls for the clearest thinking and the most unselfish action that we possess. It does not seem likely that we will keep all of our present patterns, but can any organization remain static in this age of swift changes and still progress?

What are the major factors which are of first importance in developing better library service to children?

Finances, personnel, accessibility, and the changes taking place in instructional methods and school organization appear to rank first. It costs money to produce a high standard of library service. We know that a coordinated system of libraries, either public or school, has an opportunity to give better service per dollar spent than the small independent library can do. Are we justified from a financial point of view in continuing to develop two agencies within each community or region *capable* of giving the same service to boys and girls? The taxpayer would be difficult to convince.

The next factor, that of personnel, needs little elaboration for no library in the United States is unfamiliar with the present shortage of librarians. And the need for larger staffs in school libraries is painfully obvious.

As for accessibility, it is by now an axiom that this is one of the most important factors affecting the reading patterns of children and

adults. The results of many studies also make it evident that the school library is the most accessible agency for the distribution of reading materials to children.

The proposal that school libraries give complete service to all children of school age is a recent one that has not been made very often, and when it has, the idea has not met with wholehearted approval. Some of these criticisms are justifiable unless we also take into consideration the changes taking place in the schools. No one would suggest that school libraries that are scarcely larger than closets, with partially trained people on duty only two or three hours a day, with doors closed at three or four o'clock on school days, all of Saturday and three months in the summer, are prepared to give all of the library service to children and young people, but as the need for expanded school programs is met and as we pioneer in communities without library facilities, or with poor ones, let us examine this idea with objectivity and with the needs of boys and girls uppermost in our minds. The libraries we want can be much nearer reality if we pool the present resources of the school and children's libraries, and work together to attain jointly what we could never accomplish separately.

The Reading Program in the Children's Department

FRANCES CLARKE SAYERS

THE READING program begins with the responsibility of the library to reach every child in the community for whom books and reading may have potential meaning. That responsibility includes the children in public and private schools, nursery schools, the children in hospitals and asylums, homebound children, blind children, the children held in detention homes, the children who live in houses, apartments, trailers, cold-water flats and housing developments, and even the children (often the neglected children) of the rich. For many of these children, reading may be destined to mean very little. All people are not "born" readers, and for many people, the extension of knowledge and experience through reading may never exist. Such people draw their knowledge from direct experience, or from sources which are inherently right for them. If this were more clearly understood, there would be less effort spent in reducing so much reading material to the lowest common denominator of expression, in order that more people might delude themselves into thinking that they are readers when they have looked at *Life* and taken their monthly guided and abbreviated tour through the *Reader's Digest*.

OBJECTIVES OF LIBRARY SERVICE FOR CHILDREN

In its service to the children the library must be certain that within the range of its librarians no child for whom reading may have a lasting appeal as a source of pleasure is robbed of the opportunity to discover reading on his own terms because of the library's failure to make the facilities of the community library *aggressively* available to him.

I say *aggressively* available! It is the function of the public library not only to be accessible to, but to invite, to inveigle, to tease, to

tempt, to entice, and to initiate the children of its community into the fellowship of reading.

Beneath this Pied Piper technique there is the implication of a standard of quality in that which is offered. It was to the delectable mountains, you will remember, that the Pied Piper led the children.

Where waters gushed and fruit-trees grew
And flowers put forth a fairer hue,
And everything was strange and new,¹

I am one who believes that the public library, by virtue of its being a public, tax-supported institution, is obligated to extend the intellectual interests of the people it serves; that its function is to act as spiritual leaven in the mass, and that its ultimate aim should be the creation of a community of readers who have in a large measure the ability to enjoy reading as an art. Reading as an art is not to be confused with reading as a technical process or reading as a sedative. Reading as an art exacts of its disciples an increasing ability to read with discrimination, with an appreciative mind as well as an inquiring one, to read with full awareness of the distinction between skill, craftsmanship, and the inspired expression of a creative spirit. Reading as an art in all fields endows the mind of the reader with a thousand subtle responses to the stimuli of print, and to the way in which words have been used by the writing men and women.

The process of creating such a community of readers begins, of course, with the children. Because the minds of children are fresh and impressionable and not hopelessly fixed by the opinions and prejudices of the common pressure of our mass thinking, they are capable of responding to the best in pictures, stories, and books to a greater degree than are adults. There is always the possibility of implanting in the minds of children a lodestar which will set the course in the true direction for all time.

I wish I knew a better, stronger, more durable word than "taste" by which to define one's standard of choice. The whole of one's life is spent in the act of choosing. The great concepts of an individual's life, behavior, and morality all bear close relationship to taste. Cer-

¹Robert Browning, "The Pied Piper of Hamelin," in his *The Shorter Poems of Robert Browning* (N.Y.: Crofts, 1934), p.37.

tainly the quality of our culture as a nation rests upon it. For this reason, it is imperative that the books offered to the children of a community be chosen with full realization of the responsibility of that choice, not haphazardly and not without a realization of the potential influence of reading upon the making of personality.

Once, in Minnesota, I stepped across the trickle of a stream. My host turned to me—for we were walking through a woods he knew well—and said, "My dear, you have just stepped across the headwaters of the Mississippi." I thought of that experience as I rode west this June, on a train that crept over the sodden, soaked and flooded countryside of Iowa and Nebraska, from which I saw the wrack the waters had wrought. The critical appraisal of every book which is given a place in the library is a step across the headwaters of a force which in full flood has the power to sweep through the imagination of an individual—this time a flood of beneficence—leaving a residue of remembered emotion, of awareness of beauty or keenness of perception, or arousing such excitement as the discovery of truth can engender, and thus make the difference between a commonplace personality and one of distinction.

If, then, the library assumes a measure of responsibility for the quality of mind in the people whom it serves, in its work with children it acquires responsibility for the actual process of forming the mind, since its work begins as soon as a child is able to listen to words or recognize a picture.

To accomplish this task, and to sustain the service I have described in a community, the following elements are essential:

Adequate financial support

A staff of gifted, informed, inventive, interested, imaginative, and enthusiastic children's librarians who are dedicated to the exciting task of releasing the minds and personalities of children through books and reading

A book collection adequate to the needs of children, chosen to meet their diversified tastes, hobbies, interests, and backgrounds

Scope and freedom for the extension of service throughout the community, and the full support of the whole library administration for work with children

Attractive physical equipment—a room or portion of the library where books are made invitingly available, and where children can discover

for themselves the book or picture which has the most meaning for the moment

KNOWING THE COMMUNITY

The rest of what I have to say will apply mostly to work as I know it in New York City. However, the work there, founded by one of the great pioneers, Anne Carroll Moore, is based upon principles which will apply anywhere. How fundamental and without limitation those principles are I have discovered as I have attempted to hold them together through the disruption of the war years. They are applicable anywhere, in any community, for New York is nothing more or less than a string of villages held together by a system of boroughs, each section so individual as to present all varieties of community problems. It even includes library work in rural districts, for there are sections of Staten Island and the Bronx which we serve by means of a bookmobile.

Each children's librarian freshly assigned to a branch library must explore and discover her neighborhood and make herself known to the school principals, the teachers, the settlement houses, the church organizations, the hospitals, the museums, the playgrounds of her district; and in terms of her own personality re-establish the contacts which have been maintained by her predecessor. We have been forced to close some of the children's rooms for a month during the summer because of staff shortages and to cover the vacation period. Such practice is damaging to the continuity of one's service and to the faithfulness of one's clientele. I was amused when the children's librarian of Hamilton Fish Park Branch, which had been closed, said to me the other day, "The children are coming back. I walked through the neighborhood and word got about, 'Miss Schwartz is home.'"

Each book collection, too, has its own individuality built to meet the particular needs of the neighborhood. The collection at Aguilar Branch, which serves twenty-seven nationalities, including a large proportion of Puerto Rican children, varies greatly from the collection at Fordham Children's Room, which serves a homogeneous group of children with no language barrier. Also, it was no unusual occurrence, before the housing shortage, to have a neighborhood change in a relatively brief period of time. Thus a branch library

which has once served a community largely Hungarian in background found itself surrounded by Puerto Ricans. The library building could not move, but the book collection was movable, and books in the Hungarian language followed the migration of the people. When this occurs, the children's librarian either goes with it, or abandons her devotion to the Hungarian tradition. She spends much of her time re-exploring the neighborhood and acquires an enthusiasm for the Spanish culture. The special fete days observed in the children's room through story hours now celebrate the Feast of the Kings, and the stories told are Spanish in background. The children's librarian asks the supervisor for an increase in the book appropriation for the purchase of Spanish books and additional, easy books to entice the beginning reader new to the English language.

One of the fascinating aspects of work with children in a great metropolitan center is this variety of setting and situation which makes it possible, when there is adequate staff, to fit personalities into such settings as call forth all their powers and gifts, and to give each person scope and freedom in which to make her individual contribution. Sometimes a program draws from the whole system. One of the reading programs of which I am most proud drew upon the staff as a whole. That was the introduction of books and reading into the three Shelters where delinquent children and children awaiting decisions of the court were held. Under the direction of a librarian gifted in the understanding of maladjusted children, children's librarians from various branch libraries sustained a service which won the support and respect of the city officials, the psychiatric social workers, and the directors responsible for these homes. There is no greater test of one's ability as an interpreter of books and reading than to stand before a group of boys gathered from the backwash of the city's sordid life, and with dignity, sympathy, and lack of condescension, to tell a story or present the essence of a book in such a way as to hold their spontaneous interest. Some of the children's librarians of New York accomplished this in a manner which has to be seen in order to be fully appreciated.

Once the children's librarian knows her community and knows the character of her book collection, she is ready to embark upon the most fascinating part of her work, namely, to communicate her knowledge of books to the children and to spread the good contagion

of her own enthusiasm for reading and love of true literature.

STORYTELLING AND DRAMATIZATION

Storytelling is a mighty weapon in this cause. The storyteller brings to her audience knowledge of the folklore of the world—a great, common, universal basis of understanding between peoples; a realization of the sound of good English words upon the tongue (or Spanish or French for that matter, for we have had stories told in those languages); a sharing of experience, for there is nothing which breaks down the barrier of years between children and adults as does the sharing of a story. Above all, storytelling gives children the gift of the inner eye with which they build in their imaginations the setting, the characters, the action as they gather it from the storyteller's face and expression as well as from her words. Recently a children's librarian from Nicaragua, who spoke very little English, accompanied Miss Steinmetz, the Supervisor of Storytelling, to Central Park to observe her as she told stories to children on a playground there. "I did not understand what she said," the visitor reported to me afterwards, "but she spoke with the eye and the hand and the voice, and so I know what happened." "You yourselves must light the fagots you have brought" reads the inscription over the stage of Chicago's Goodman Theater, if I remember aright. Storytelling is a direct means of helping the children to light the fagots of their own imagination. It is the surest and most related method whereby reading is shared and made dramatic.

A program of supervised storytelling over a period of thirty-five years has brought the New York Public Library returns which cannot be measured. Men and women who heard stories told when they were children, return to the library with their children and their children's children, saying, "This is an experience I shall never forget. I want my child to have it." A soldier, in casual conversation with a school principal whom he met on a train, said, when he discovered the man was from the Morrisania district, "Is Miss Lorch still at the library? I remember a Christmas story hour. . . ."

If the storytellers ever had any doubt as to the lasting worth of their efforts, the moving tributes from the armed forces must have dispelled them. Not without the highest standards of accomplishment, the most regulated and carefully organized program, the most subtle

READING PROGRAM IN THE CHILDREN'S DEPARTMENT

creation of background and atmosphere, has this program been sustained. Beginning formally in each of the children's rooms on Halloween and continuing through the year on a weekly basis, the quality is sustained, upheld and accomplished with a high morale that is a combination of the tradition of the theater—in which the show must go on—and the tradition of the post office department, through "hail, and sleet and dark of night." The formal season ends on May 5th, the birthday of Marie Shedlock, the great English storyteller, from whom storytelling in New York derives. Then the storytellers draw a long breath and replenish their repertory of stories, after having received inspiration from the Spring Symposium, when they gather to listen to the new talent which the Supervisor has discovered and developed during the year. The long breath leads into the strenuous summer program in which the storytellers follow the children to the playgrounds, the swimming pools, the day camps, the vacation schools, where they tell stories and supplement the stories with books which they carry with them by the armload. Thus, reading assumes its rightful place as an appropriate activity for the season of the year devoted to play and recreation and doing what one pleases—all because the storytellers have taken their wares to the children. It is no uncommon thing for the storyteller to be followed back to the library by a bedraggled group of children just out of the swimming pool who have suddenly remembered the fun of reading. They return with the librarian to take out their cards, or to join the children who gather daily all during the vacation period for a library hour in which books are read aloud.

I have spoken of folklore as the great source from which the storytellers derive their stories. Actually storytelling has its roots in what we call the Reading Room collection. Each children's room has a collection of books which do not circulate for home use. It is maintained as a source for individual, voluntary exploration in the library. The books in this collection consist of a core collection of folk and fairy tales, the high peaks in children's literature, the distinguished books of nonfiction, and above all picture books in abundance, especially foreign picture books. The collection, and the space allotted to it is a continuous invitation to look, to linger, to read. What it has meant to children who live in crowded conditions you can well imagine. In the days of the depression, when book funds were cut, the

distinguished new books were made available to children through the Reading Room collections, when they could not be purchased in sufficient numbers to circulate. It is from this collection that the storyteller draws, and from this collection that children choose the books they want read aloud to them in the long summer afternoons.

For children who are too young to enjoy the story hour, the art of communication begins with the picture book. Picture book hours are held weekly and the potential reader of three, four, and five years of age learns the delight of following a story, identifying himself with such suitable heroes as "Little Toot," "Hercules" and "Andy" of the lions, or gazes with enraptured eyes as all the great picture books of the world are opened to him. At one of the branches the picture book hour reached such proportions that it became impossible to admit sixty-five or seventy children five years of age and under without the anchorage of their parents. So parents are now admitted. They sit in a solemn but responsive row in the back of the story hour room and explore with their children that rich contribution of American publishing, the world of picture books. This is a program in adult education.

The puppet play is another medium of communication which derives from books and leads again to the reading of them. I never cease to marvel at the appeal of this most creative and imaginative of the old theater arts. The most sophisticated children, born and bred on the blare of radio programs and previously conditioned by comics, will sit enthralled at this small world. The staff of children's librarians has produced some gifted puppeteers, who have brought *Many Moons*, *The Magic Fishbone*, *Punch and Judy*, *The Tinder Box*, *The Reluctant Dragon* to unforgettable life between the puppet curtains. Puppet plays are used to mark the highest festivals—Christmas, Hanukah, and birthday celebrations of such beloved authors as Hans Christian Andersen and Beatrix Potter, or the library's own birthday.

EXHIBITS

Exhibitions are often the starting point for a reading program. They offer the imaginative librarian an opportunity to present books in fresh and amusing association with each other and to lead children to reading books in unaccustomed order. I remember at Epiphany Branch a delightful exhibition on apples. The children's librarian

brought in from her own farm various species of apples, carefully labeling them. The names in themselves are a form of poetry: Wine-sap, Rome Beauty, McIntosh, Baldwin, Northern Spy. The branches of apple trees were used for decoration and not only were all the books on fruits brought together, but *A Apple Pie* and *Roly Poly Pudding* and *A Is for Apple*.

There was a beautiful exhibition on the sun, the moon, and the stars arranged in three glass cases at Hamilton Fish Park. At another branch, the birthdays of Howard Pyle and Walter Crane were made the occasion for bringing out all the books these artists had illustrated and presenting them as an inviting field for exploration. There are exhibitions which derive from the special enthusiasm and hobbies of the children's librarians. The exhibition of valentines growing out of Miss Masten's own collection has become a tradition in the Central Children's Room.

Like every other activity in a children's room, an exhibition, to be effective, must be truly related to reading and derive from it; it must have unity of theme and be spaciouly and attractively arranged. Its planning requires imagination and breadth of concept. It must have dignity and interest, beauty or wit, but not be haphazardly contrived of book jackets, dolls and Dennison's papers. This may sound didactic, but I feel that in no aspect of children's work is so much time wasted and so little use made of inventiveness and skill.

There is one children's librarian who sets afloat every children's room for which she is responsible. She has a passion for the sea and before she has been long in any place, a library ship's model club springs up among the boys; they build ship models, read sea stories, sing sea chanties, and are visited and addressed by artists and writers who are also marine enthusiasts.

AUTHORS AND ARTISTS

The Public Library of New York is fortunate in having at hand so many artists and authors who generously give of their time to the boys and girls who gather in the Reading Rooms all over the city to see and hear and speak with them. My old age will be made gay by the memories of Kurt Wiese, James Daugherty, Louis Slobodkin, Hans Rey, Wanda Gág, William Pène DuBois, all speaking to the children and drawing pictures for them. I remember John Tunis

talking about his books to boys at Washington Heights and Mr. Ojike telling African folktales in the same place. Once upon request, Mr. Gatti, speaking to the boys at 135th street, obligingly rolled up the legs of his trousers to display the scars of a wound he had received from a poisonous snake. My old age will be saddened by the thought of all the gala days I missed—Isabel Palencia, talking to the girls about Spain against the background of a Spanish exhibition arranged in her honor; James Stephens and Walter de la Mare, reading their own poetry to the children; and Hendrik van Loon playing the violin for them when his book *The Songs We Sing* was published.

Nor shall I forget the meeting arranged in honor of an exhibition of pictures painted by children in Bombay, India, at which Miss Devi spoke to the children about her school days in the school of Rabindranath Tagore. She appeared in her beautiful sari, sang some of her childhood's songs, playing her own accompaniment on bells. It was at the end of this meeting that a boy arose to ask a question. He wanted to know how many poles were used in the building of a wigwam! This caused great embarrassment, because he had to be told that Miss Devi was not an American Indian, and Miss Devi had to be told what a wigwam was. They informed one another. The next day the boy came to the library and asked for books on both India and Indians. "I've got to get it straight," he said.

The librarians in New York are more fortunate than those in smaller communities because of the many artists and authors who live there and are eager and willing to talk to children. Each community, however, has its local historian, its interesting personalities who can enliven a whole subject field for children by communicating their experience to them. The tales of hunters and fishermen ought to be readily available if nothing else.

BOOK TALKS

Last winter the children's librarians devoted several of their staff meetings to a discussion of the best techniques for book talks. Some of them contended that no better method existed than telling the story of the book; others declared they had been most successful in discussing books, or parts of books in a happy relationship. One librarian told of her success in introducing books on the topic of "famous mistakes," starting off with the *Peterkin Papers* and "The

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Lady Who Put Salt in Her Coffee." Another had taken parties as her choice and told the children about famous parties in books, beginning with the Mad Hatter's in *Alice in Wonderland*. Some librarians believed that the story should be told and left unfinished at the most interesting and dramatic part. Some said they had had marked success with reading aloud favorite passages. All of these methods were demonstrated during our discussion, but the spontaneous applause went to Mrs. Augusta Baker of the 135th Street Branch Library; she presented Hildegard Swift's *North Star Shining* and Lorenz Graham's *How God Fix Jonah*. She told what she knew of the authors, of their reasons for writing the books, of the sources of their inspiration, of her own enthusiasm for the books, and then read aloud from them.

The book talk is chief among the methods of communication in the New York Public Library. It is the basis of the work with the elementary schools of the city and with the high schools, where the young people's librarians of the public library help to arouse and sustain interest in reading as an individual, voluntary pursuit.

RELATIONS WITH SCHOOLS

When the work with schools was organized in New York, under the direction of its present Supervisor, Miss Mabel Williams, it was understood that the library has its own unique contribution to make to the schools, and that it was not to be limited to furnishing supplementary material and giving instruction in the use of reference books and the catalog. The extent to which that unique service of the library to the schools has come to be recognized, acclaimed and clamoured for by the school supervisors, principals and teachers is an everlasting tribute to Mabel Williams, to the integrity of her purpose, and the skill with which she has instilled the children's librarians with her zeal, her idealism, and her practical method.

Class by class the schools visit their branch libraries, on school time. There the children listen to talks about books which the librarian has prepared for them—talks similar to those I have mentioned, talks growing out of the librarian's own knowledge of books and enjoyment of them, talks which bear no relation to the assignment of the day. After the book talk there is time for discussion, questions, and, best of all, for individual exploration of shelves, tables, and exhibi-

tions. An invitation is issued to join the library and cards and applications are discussed, distributed, and often old scores involving fines resolved and forgiven. That is what is meant by work with schools in New York. It is for this reason that the book talk becomes immensely important as a means of communication, and for this reason we try to perfect ourselves in it.

The children's librarians sometimes present books in this way to whole school assemblies, in schools which are too far distant to send classes to the library. During the war years, when the class visits had to be curtailed, the book talk at the assembly was often the limit and extent of our service to the school. It had to be done in superb fashion. That is why I shall never forget the assembly talk by the children's librarian of Fordham who set a whole school in search of Mr. Thurber's *White Deer*. Six months after the talk had been given the hunt was still on.

One November morning Sigrid Undset spoke to the staff of children's librarians. A young assistant rushed back to her branch library because she had a fifth grade scheduled. Although she had read *Happy Times in Norway*, she had had no intention originally of using the book as the subject of a book talk. However, she had been so moved by the personality of the author that when she returned to Tompkins Square Library, she scrapped her prepared talk and spoke to the children about Sigrid Undset and her book. In June of the following year, at the end of the term, the teacher came to her and said, "Miss Simmons, I just want you to know that every child in the fifth grade has read *Happy Times in Norway* with no urging from me."

Which brings me to what I could so easily and so briefly have said in the beginning. Given the book collection, full knowledge of the community, and a librarian who has that greatest of all gifts—the gleam in the eye—you have a combination which can spread the quick contagion of good reading like wildfire. In the end, book by book, and child by child, it is the gleam in the eye that is the most effective means of communication. Give me enough dedicated, gifted children's librarians who have a sense of humor and I could build you a city such as John Drinkwater describes:

The City

A shining city, one
Happy in snow and sun,
And singing in the rain
A paradisa! strain. . .
Here is a dream to keep,
O Builders, from your sleep.

O foolish Builders, wake,
Take your trowels, take
The poet's dream, and build
The city song has willed,
That every stone may sing,
And all your roads may ring
With happy wayfaring.²

²*Collected Poems of John Drinkwater* (London: Sedgwick and Jackson, 1923), I, p.185.

The Library in Today's School

WILLARD E. GOSLIN AND ROBERT S. GILCHRIST

THIS PAPER will deal with school libraries as they are in the 1940's, and will show something of their importance to the schools as the schools are now developing. It will not attempt in any way to trace the history of school libraries from their early beginning through the many stages of their growth in order to offer background in pointing up present trends and future developments. Ample printed material can be found which gives this historical information and can be consulted by anyone wishing to make contrasts in methods and administration.

THE SCHOOL LIBRARY AND THE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR

Perhaps at the beginning, a few remarks about the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards and its effect upon the thinking of secondary school principals are in order. This study was published in 1938 and 1939 as a series of books on evaluation and criteria by which secondary school principals might ascertain their school educational temperatures through extensive self-analysis. The school library was a part of this study. An attempt was made to evaluate the quality as well as the quantity of library service. It concerned qualifications of the librarian, minimum budgets, accessibility, adequacy and attractiveness of library rooms, and services to teachers and pupils. Since a good rating on these items became necessary in order to have an accredited school, principals all over the country became more aware of the fact that a library was not merely a collection of books nor was it simply a pleasant adjunct to the school but that it was an important and integral part of the school itself.

Between 1939 and 1945, committees of principals belonging to the various associations of secondary schools and colleges have discussed the points of evaluation of the original study. So far as the library is concerned, the comments show that these standards are now generally accepted as minimum standards with a tendency toward demanding that schools measure up or be declared inadequate.

THE LIBRARY IN TODAY'S SCHOOL

There is no doubt but that this study has had considerable effect upon superintendents and school boards in that they now very generally accept the financing and maintenance of the school library as their responsibility even in cases where a public library shares in the administration through a joint contract. That in some instances administrators have caught the vision of what a functioning curriculum materials center under trained library direction can mean to a school is evidenced in a quotation from a report published in the *North Central Association Quarterly* for April 1947, which says, "Probably the North Central Association should embark upon a plan to educate its principals in the purposes of a library in modern secondary schools."¹ This statement would seem to indicate that some principals feel they know more about what a library should do for a school than do others. How true this is was strikingly brought out in a recent incident. Within the past year, one state legislature passed a school aid law which required that all textbooks should be furnished free to high school students. Previously, each pupil purchased his own books, and, as is usual in such cases, he bought one book for each subject in which he was enrolled. Now, the State Department was very liberal in its interpretation of this law and stated that "text-books" would include all learning materials, not just one textbook for one subject, but all sorts of books—reference books, library books, all kinds of printed materials including maps, charts, films, and the like. A fairly generous budget was set up to start off the change from pupil purchase to school purchase. Several principals sat down to make plans. What were their plans? Well, they were practically unanimous in setting up a way for the very same books to be used by the very same pupils in the very same way as they were used before. They planned that books would be handed out by a clerk from a book room to a teacher, and in turn, checked out to pupils in the classroom and checked back again. Practically unanimous! There was a glimmer though——

THE SCHOOL LIBRARY AS A MATERIALS CENTER

Questions began to come up about supplementary books, about maps and films, about books for common-learning units, about peri-

¹Carl G. F. Franzen, "The Proposed Revision of the Regulations and Criteria of the Commission on Secondary Schools," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XXI (1947), 427.

odicals, and materials for discussion groups. One principal asked about the relation of all this material to the library. Rather boldly a librarian remarked that really the library was the logical loan center for all books for the school, including textbooks defined as the state had defined them. "Oh, no!" one principal said, "my librarian is a reference person. I don't want any of her time diverted from serving teachers and pupils in the library." Another said, "The assistant principal should handle textbooks." Still another said, "I'm not of the opinion that librarians are equipped to direct instruction through handling textbooks." And again, "My librarian has too much to do already. She couldn't stand the additional physical strain." The librarian said, "A public library is staffed to handle hundreds of books for hundreds of people. Does one person do it all? Is there not such a thing as a library staff with reference assistants, circulation assistants, catalogers, clerks, and pupil assistants? Is not a person qualified to administer such a library who has been trained as school librarians are trained today with all the administrative background gained from library courses and from courses in school curriculum and educational psychology?"

This incident of conflicting opinions illustrates a present confusion in the directing of teaching materials belonging to a school into the hands of pupils and teachers. Two ways are open. Which shall it be? On the one hand, there is the classroom where teachers and pupils must have materials with which to work. Shall this be the center? Shall each teacher have a laboratory equipped with shelves of books and magazines, files for clippings and pamphlets, projectors and radios, bulletin boards full of pictures, wall maps, and globes, all the materials that a class needs and more, with a budget to maintain it? An ideal situation! Could anyone object to this? Surely no teacher? At least not until uncataloged books cannot be located, not until files become crowded, not until piles of periodicals fill a dusty shelf, not until books are outdated, and some of these things become a clutter instead of an asset. Not until the community use of school buildings means that someone else will enter the sanctum several evenings during the week and not be too careful of the things that are there; not until all-year-round school means another teacher in that room for several months in the year; not until a new teacher takes over and has to take stock.

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Then, on the other hand, there is the library. Shall the library be the center for *all* the materials of instruction? Shall library books become textbooks, become tools and be considered as a means of extending experience and as aids of thinking rather than solely as sources of information and instruments for pleasure? Shall the library be the laboratory and loan center for all subjects of the school? A library that is well organized, easily accessible, fully cataloged, arranged for quick circulation and loan? A library administered by a librarian who is first and foremost a teacher with the whole curriculum for her subject, and aided by a competent staff so that service is rapid and flexible?

There should be no conflict. There can be no conflict if the library assumes the task of making such ideal classrooms possible for every teacher in the school. If it does this, it means that the library must be staffed and equipped to handle not only many books, books in quantities for classroom use—yes, sets of books, if you please—but also all sorts of printed materials, ranging from comics to the *Atlantic Monthly*, from preprimers to the *Harvard Report*, and visual aids ranging from Mother Goose film strips to documentary films. It means not just having a variety of materials to hand to the teacher who comes to ask for them, but planned expert service reaching out to all teachers providing them with all that is necessary for the study of the subject of their particular field. It means that all the curriculum materials belonging to a school will be kept constantly in action. It does away with static collections, outdated materials, and wasteful duplication.

Just as the teacher has found out that trying to teach all children from a single textbook is an absurdity, so the school librarian is learning that excluding textbooks from library shelves is also an absurdity. All curriculum materials have become the library's stock in trade so that the line of demarcation between textbooks and library books has vanished. The day of the librarian who is a "keeper of books" has disappeared. The school librarian today is a teacher. First he is a teacher of teachers and second he is a teacher of students.

THE SCHOOL LIBRARY AND MODERN CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

Perhaps it will be well for us to develop the point of view that the librarian of today must be a teacher of teachers. The time is past

when the curriculum of a school can be determined by textbook writers, by state departments of education or by central office staff members of a large city. Each faculty member in a building, in the final analysis, shares responsibility for the curriculum which is provided for the boys and girls in that building. This acceptance of responsibility by teachers for developing a curriculum is essential if the experiences provided boys and girls are to be in terms of their actual needs and if the curriculum is to be in terms of the community needs of which the school is a part. Of course the expert in curriculum making will still be invaluable, but he must be used as a consultant for the school faculty as they attack the problems of deciding the most appropriate experiences for the school in which they are teaching. The teachers will not do this job of curriculum development by themselves, but rather will enlist the help of parents and laymen of the community and of the students themselves.

If teachers are to develop a curriculum for the school in which they teach, they must decide upon the bases on which they will select experiences. There is a distinct trend toward recognition of three bases for the curriculum. The first of these is the developmental needs of children and adolescents. In an earlier paper Stephen M. Corey and Virgil E. Herrick, of the University of Chicago, discussed these developmental needs. They emphasized that there are at least five developmental tasks for the adolescent group: (1) coming to terms with their own bodies; (2) learning new relationships to their age mates; (3) achieving independence from their parents; (4) achieving adult social and economic status, and (5) acquiring self-confidence and a system of values. There was a time in education when the subject matter was decided upon without reference to the developmental needs of boys and girls or an understanding or recognition of how learning takes place. Teachers have an obligation to see to it that this condition no longer exists. There is a considerable amount of literature available on children and adolescents, their developmental needs, and the factors which affect their behavior. The faculty of a school must discover a way to keep constantly aware of the latest research in respect to child development and to take this research into account as they decide on curriculum problems. In addition they must become aware of the particular needs of boys and girls through observations in school and classroom.

The second basis for curriculum development which is being utilized by schools is the democratic values which the school wishes to have its students develop. Democracy as a way of life obviously cannot be taught from a textbook. The entire school environment must be conducive to the development of those attitudes, habits, and understandings which give the greatest promise for extension and enrichment of the democratic way of life. This means that all situations in the school must be analyzed to determine just how the possibilities for democratic living can be completely capitalized upon. Problems which must be attacked may be in the realm of intergroup education. They may be in the area of pupil participation in planning and carrying out the activities of a classroom. The faculty must be constantly alert to check its practices in terms of at least three characteristics which are crucial in the democratic way of life: (1) respect for the dignity and worth of the human personality; (2) an appreciation for and an ability to participate in group living, and (3) ability to solve problems through utilization of a method that takes into account pertinent data rather than accepting an answer regardless of factors which should affect the situation. It is no easy task to keep examining the environment of a school in order to decide whether it provides opportunity for enhancing and extending the democratic way of life, but it is one of the most important activities in which a faculty can engage.

The third basis for deciding upon appropriate curriculum experience lies in the demands of the community life of which the boys and girls are a part. Young people as they grow and develop have problems to face in their everyday living. The school curriculum must be evaluated in terms of whether or not the boys and girls who attend that school live on a more intelligent, happier level than if they were not attending school. A faculty should develop a workable plan for analyzing the life problems which the school curriculum should include. Five areas in which problems might be used for this analysis are: family living, recreation, health, work experience, and citizenship. Whatever the plan by which a faculty analyzes the demands which life is making on boys and girls, it seems rather clear that there is a need to keep constantly examining the school curriculum in terms of whether it is making a maximum contribution to the everyday living of boys and girls. This may be achieved through commit-

tees, each one of which is designated to assume leadership in respect to one aspect of life problems which the faculty thinks it is important to examine.

The faculty of a school which attempts to develop a curriculum in terms of child and adolescent needs, democratic values, and the requirements which life makes upon boys and girls will obviously be changing the practices and policies of the school as they discover ways in which the school can more effectively meet the demands made upon it. Undoubtedly many practices such as the following will develop: (1) Every staff member will recognize that he has an obligation to teach beyond his own specialization. For example, every teacher will need to be sensitive to health as a goal of the school. Every teacher will find that he must contribute to the effective language skills of boys and girls. Every teacher will realize that he has a stake in citizenship education rather than believing that this important objective can be allocated to any one department or teacher. (2) Departmental lines in the secondary schools and in those elementary schools where departmentalization has been practiced will very probably disappear. Basing a curriculum on problems which boys and girls face implies that units of work will be developed which cut across the traditionally organized fields. (3) Evaluation of pupil growth will take place in terms of behavior changes which occur in the boys and girls rather than in terms of the facts which can be repeated on an examination or the skills which can be practiced only in relation to the situations in which they are learned. In other words, evaluation will be made on the basis of the actual attitudes and understandings which boys and girls have as a result of their school experiences. Faculties will observe the effect of the curriculum on boys and girls as they live out in the community, both now and as adults.

The role of the librarian on a school faculty in which staff members themselves are accepting the major responsibility for curriculum development is an important one. Teachers must discover sources by which they can keep up to date. This is an area in which the librarian becomes a teacher of teachers. He can be invaluable in helping the staff keep up to date on developments throughout the nation, the experiences of other schools, the statements of frontier thinkers and the latest research. The librarian is a key person in guaranteeing that the faculty recognizes developmental needs, democratic values, and

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life problems as bases for curriculum development. As the teachers decide upon problems which should be included in the school curriculum the librarian again becomes invaluable in helping to develop resource files of materials to which the teachers can refer as they develop actual learning units with their boys and girls. Surely a case can be made that a most important function of the librarian is in this area of guidance for teachers in attacking the problem of curriculum development.

THE SCHOOL LIBRARY AND THE NEEDS OF YOUTH

What contribution does the school librarian make in teaching students? You are probably all aware of the work of the National Association of Secondary School Principals in which ten imperative needs of youth of secondary school age have been defined. In the March 1947 issue of the *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, the practices of schools in meeting these imperative needs are enumerated.² The library will, of course, continue to serve subject matter as it has always served subject matter. Book service will continue to be as good or as poor as the librarian's conception of the library, as the teaching methods used by teachers in the school, and as the vision of the administrator directing the school. But aside from such service to individuals and groups, what contribution does the school library make on its own toward meeting some of these "imperative needs of youth"?

For example, supervised work experience has been listed as one need. Every school library has pupil assistants ranging all the way from two or three volunteers who just naturally gravitate toward any library, up to thirty or forty pupils organized into a class for regular school credit. Isn't this a place within the school where some work experience is possible? Where better? Isn't this a place where training is very definitely conceived of as vocational training but not as vocational library training? Here is a situation where any and every pupil if he wishes can get experience "behind-the-counter," so to speak, experience in using indexes, catalogs, files—useful knowledge for any vocational field. It can be a place too, incidentally, where a rather lonesome student sometimes makes a happy contact with other stu-

²Committee on Curriculum Planning and Development. "The Imperative Needs of Youth of Secondary School Age," *Bulletin of National Association of Secondary School Principals*, XXXI (1947), 3-144.

dents. Here is an example of the thing that happens. Bertha was born in Greece. She was new to the town and to the school when she entered as a sophomore. She drifted into the library by accident on her first day at school, a terribly lonely youngster with a handicap of not knowing English very well. About the third week of school, she asked if it were too late to become a member of the library class. The librarian said she might join the class if her adviser would clear her program. Her English teacher said in so many words, "Bertha is a moron." She couldn't read. Her social studies teacher asked, "Does she do any work?" But Bertha stayed as a library helper for two years. She never read a book all the time she was there, but the librarian knows she had a happy and profitable experience, for she has had numerous conversations with Bertha on the downtown corner near the large office building where Bertha is now in charge of the cigar counter. Bertha meets her with the same smile she gives her patrons. Work experience? Yes, I think the library made its contribution here and can do so again.

Then, rights and duties of citizenship involving living cooperatively with others is cited as another pupil need. Where in the school could be found a more perfect setting for pupil self-government? It succeeds in the library, if properly directed, when it may not be successful on a school-wide basis. A library representative in every home room relieves the teacher of checking late books and library fines. A library monitor sees that whatever rules are imposed are carried out. Pupils make the rules by mutual consent, arriving at a code for proper action within a library room. These activities have been going on in school libraries over the years, but they point to the fact that within the walls of the school there is a perfectly natural place for the practice of sharing with others, a place where no discrimination of race or creed exists, a place for chance rubbing of elbows—all on the same basis with equal opportunity. Here, too, a student who is remiss about public property has a chance to admit his mistake and willingly take the consequences by the payment of fines for delinquency in returning books or for mutilating them. Here also is training in keeping appointments when a student brings a book back exactly at the time that it is due. There is plenty of opportunity to practice citizenship in a library!

To think rationally, to read with understanding, and to seek out

his own sources of information, has been cited as another need of youth. Perhaps a story shows the part the library can play better than any theorizing on the subject.

Bill was taking all the shopwork he could get. English, however, was required and so Bill sat through his English class doing just enough to get a passing grade, although there was nothing the matter with Bill's I.Q. He sat through the library lessons included in the English course, apparently without interest. To the knowledge of the librarian, he never borrowed anything except the books absolutely required for some class. About two years after Bill was graduated the librarian met him in the reference room of the public library. She was somewhat surprised and said, "Why, Bill, this is the last place I would ever expect to find you!" Bill looked a little sheepish but he pointed to his arm which was in a sling. He told her he had been hurt while on the job and he thought he was entitled to compensation for his injury. He remembered that he had been told in the library class that the latest information could be found by looking in something called a *Readers' Guide*. Well, Bill got his compensation. He found his own source of information which was better for him than the one his employer was trying to impose upon him. Has the library a place of its own in helping youngsters to think rationally and verify the facts? Yes, we believe it has. If this sort of thing were multiplied only ten times a year in a community it would be worth while. Ten more thinkers each year and then ten times that! Adults ready to form their own opinions based on research! From reference books in school to reference books in public libraries! A curriculum based on such needs must have a library for its laboratory.

Comments are hardly necessary in pointing out that the library meets the needs of youth in offering to it opportunities for developing capacities for appreciation of beauty in literature, art, music, and nature—the libraries' stock in trade for many years. There is, however, a recent change in the attitude toward the use of the pupil's study hour in school. Formerly, each pupil was expected pretty much to keep his nose in the book assigned to him, or chosen by him to prepare a definite lesson for a definite class. Reading of newspapers was not tolerated. Magazine reading was either confined to assigned topics or considered a waste of time. Pupils had to prove to study hall teach-

ers, or even to the librarians, that the novel being read in the library was "for a class." Instead of all these taboos, there is now an increasing encouragement on the part of teachers for use of the library hour by pupils as a time to follow their own interests, a period of relaxation with time for reading anything they wish. No pressure, no frowns, even on sports' page reading. Librarians report generally an unusual increase in reading of magazines and of books not connected with any class work. There would seem no better opportunity within the school's walls to help young people learn how to make good use of leisure time than to encourage this opportunity of using a library hour for reading on one's own. Where could one find a better opportunity for evaluating a library in terms of specific behavior of pupils and their spontaneous use of its materials?

One of the needs of pupils and teachers is planning together. If a pupil is to do something about his own progress in school, and learn to plan ahead, he must be given opportunity for practice. The democratic idea which is much discussed today finds one outlet in this concept of teacher-pupil planning in the selection of units of work, and in the discovery and acquisition of the materials necessary in bringing the unit to completion. While all the resources of the community are to be considered in choosing the direction the unit may take, it is hard to imagine any area of interest which will not need the materials a library has to offer. It is here that teachers and librarians should be particularly aware of the fact that the pupil is to do something about his own progress. It would be easier in many ways to have the teacher tell the librarian that she wants this or that and have it sent to the classroom, much easier than meeting a committee of pupils sent by the class to discover what the resources of the library might be—especially when they are obviously ignorant of catalogs and indexes. But it is in this very searching out of materials that pupils gain considerable satisfaction and increasingly greater skill in evaluating essentials. It is at this point that teaching the use of books and libraries to pupils becomes truly functional and logical. The child who has learned in school to plan what he needs, who has learned how to plan his time to go to the place where it can be found, and to get what he planned to get, may much more readily as an adult be willing to plan time to use the resources of his community and to know how to derive maximum pleasure and profit from them.

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THE SCHOOL LIBRARY AND FUTURE DEVELOPMENTS

Then, too, there is the trend toward unification of the efforts of civic agencies in promoting community centers in school buildings, and to the plans for all-year-round schools, which educators are beginning to accept as good business. Where in this wider use of public school buildings with activities going on morning, noon, and night, is the place of the library? This is getting right down to the grassroots. Here are the homes. Here are the people, young and old. Here are the businesses big and small. Here is found the thinking that makes the community what it is. The adults of this community need to know and understand each other just as the children of the school learn to know and understand each other. They need the same satisfaction of learning something new, of practicing what they know, the same sharing of experiences in discussion groups, in games, in arts and crafts. They need a place where they can just plain get acquainted. Large communities are finding that after all they are just made up of small communities. Neighborhoods exist everywhere. The school district is just about the right size for such a community center. Can anyone think of such a center without a library? Could a library where such a center exists, separate itself from the center and still feel that it was serving this community? No, the library would need to become part and parcel of the center. The conception of its services, however, would have to embrace all the implications involved. It could not function merely as a recreational reading or casual reference room, as a pleasant adjunct to a working center. It would have to serve the school as has been indicated that a school should be served. It would have to serve the businesses of the community as special libraries now serve those businesses. It would have to serve the individuals of the community as an appropriate part of its public library program.

To reach the people, it is necessary to stay with the people, to know these people as friends and neighbors. This is not a small task. It certainly is not a one-man job. It requires a staff, one that is highly trained, whether the community is rural or urban, whether the district is wealthy or poor. It requires a library staff that is willing to work in complete accord with the staff of the community center, with complete understanding of its philosophy and aims. This is a professional challenge, a challenge to see that group needs are as important

as individual needs, to see that libraries and schools are not two public agencies but only one when children and adults are neighbors.

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The Library as a Center for Young People in the Community

MARGARET C. SCOGGIN

YOUNG PEOPLE were defined by the Young People's Reading Round Table of the American Library Association in 1937 as "boys and girls between the ages of 13 and 21," implying in public libraries "those who have been transferred from the children's department." The need of this group for guidance in recreational and informational reading, for aid in school work, for introduction to adult literature and to public library resources is the basis for specialized work with them in public libraries.

HISTORY OF PUBLIC LIBRARY SERVICE FOR YOUNG PEOPLE

Organized work with young people is a much later development than work with children. For well over half a century children have had special rooms, special books, and special librarians. Almost every public library throughout the country has its children's department or service. Work with young people may have come later because for so long a time the boy or girl of thirteen or fourteen who could not go to college left school for work and spent long hours at it. With the spread of education, the raising of legal age for leaving school, the shorter working hours, and the growth of libraries, the young people in the adult department—and in the community—became more noticeable as a group. A typical survey made in 1937¹ showed that more than 50 per cent of the borrowers in the adult department were under twenty-one. Other studies showed that no librarian could happily assume that children's room members automatically became adult department users; actually there was a tremendous loss between the two departments. These two factors, the growing number of young people in the adult department and the failure to make permanent

¹Alice Louise LeFevre, "The Neglected Age in the Public Library." *New York Libraries*, XV (1937), 228-31. (The library was the New Rochelle, New York, Public Library.)

library users of all children's room members, gave impetus to work with young people.

As early as 1912, Herbert L. Cowing, Head of the Loan Department, Free Public Library of New Haven, Connecticut, stressed the need for a special collection in the adult department to bridge the gap between children's books and adult literature.² Even in the first two decades of the 20th century a few libraries experimented with separate service for "intermediates:" Pratt Institute Free Library, Brooklyn, New York, 1906; Buffalo, New York, Public Library, 1910; St. Louis, Missouri, Public Library, Divol Branch, 1911; New Haven, Connecticut, Public Library, 1912.³ It is possible that these experiments died out because there were not enough interested librarians to carry them on, or because the attitude toward the young people was still one of regulation rather than of guidance.

The continuous history of work with young people in the public library really began in 1919 when the New York Public Library appointed a Superintendent of Work with Schools. One of her functions was to train in each branch library a member of the adult staff to aid young people in their reading and reference work. The first room wholly devoted to work with youth was the Robert Louis Stevenson Room of the Cleveland, Ohio, Public Library, opened in 1925. The books were chosen primarily for recreational reading and the collection was built around the interests of the young people; a reference collection was added as an aid in doing school assignments. In 1926 the Los Angeles, California, Public Library provided a librarian in its main building to serve "young adults." In 1929 the Brownsville Children's Branch of the Brooklyn, New York, Public Library converted its second floor into an intermediate department. In less spectacular fashion, but just as successfully, other libraries experimented with special collections and special librarians for the teen age.

By 1930 there were enough young people's librarians throughout the country to form the Young People's Reading Round Table of the American Library Association.⁴ In 1933 Enoch Pratt Free Library,

²Herbert L. Cowing, "The Intermediate Collection for Young People in the Public Library," *Library Journal*, XXXVII (1912), 189-92.

³Sister Marie Inez Johnson, *The Development of Separate Service for Young People in Public Libraries in the United States, and Its Implications for Library Schools* (Baltimore: Enoch Pratt Free Library, 1940), p.5.

⁴Since 1941 the Young People's Reading Round Table has been a part of the Division of Libraries for Children and Young People.

Baltimore, Maryland, put its work with young people under a special librarian who served as roving guide in the main building and supervised young people's librarians in the branches. A sampling of other places which established work with this group in the 1930's shows: Portland, Oregon, 1935; Lakewood, Ohio, 1937; Yonkers, New York, 1938. Also in 1938 the Denver, Colorado, Public Library started a special division for the teen age with an alcove at the main library. In 1939 the St. Paul, Minnesota, Public Library opened its James H. Skinner Memorial Room.⁵ The subsequent years have shown rapid development. In its new building completed in 1940, the Concord, New Hampshire, Public Library set aside space for this group; 1941 saw the opening of the new Brooklyn, New York, Public Library building with a young people's department housed in its own room under a special staff. That same year saw also the opening of two unique buildings: the Ella A. McClatchy Library, a branch of the Sacramento, California, Public Library for the exclusive use of young people,⁶ and the Nathan Straus Branch of the New York Public Library with its adult department designed for readers from thirteen to twenty-one years of age.⁷ Since then the number of libraries which have set up rooms and services for young people has increased amazingly. A few varied examples are: the Young Moderns' Alcove of the Chicago, Illinois, Public Library's Hild Regional Branch, 1941;⁸ Muncie, Indiana, Public Library's Young Moderns' Collections, 1941;⁹ Newark, New Jersey, Public Library's Teen Corner, 1945;¹⁰ Hi-Teeners' Corner of the Walker Branch of the Minneapolis, Minnesota, Public Library, 1945;¹¹ James Anderson Room of the Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, 1942;¹² Collegiate Room of the Milwaukee, Wisconsin, Public Library, 1946.¹³

Statistics are available that show the growth of libraries for young

⁵Nancy S. Loehr, "The James H. Skinner Memorial Room," *Library Journal*, LXIV (1939), 970-72.

⁶Reita B. Campbell, "Ella K. McClatchy Young People's Library," *Top of the News*, III (1947), 5-6.

⁷Margaret C. Scoggin, "The Nathan Straus Branch for Children and Young People," *Library Journal*, LXVI (1941), 547-49.

⁸Helen Zatterberg, "Young Moderns' Alcove," *Library Journal*, LXVII (1942), 69-71.

⁹Dan A. Williams, "Young Adult Service in Small Public Libraries," *Library Occurrent*, XV (1947), 597-602.

¹⁰Beatrice W. Schein, "Youth Will Be Served," *Wilson Bulletin*, XX (1946), 362-63.

¹¹Marjorie Dickson, "In Step with Young Moderns," *Wilson Bulletin*, XX (1945), 150.

¹²Kate Kolish, "Specifications for Youth," *Wilson Bulletin*, XIX (1945), 610-11.

¹³Gerald P. Caffrey, "Collegiate Room," *Wilson Bulletin*, XX (1946), 608.

people during the period from 1937-1947. In the spring of 1937 questionnaires were sent to seventy-seven public libraries by the Standing Committee of the Young People's Reading Round Table; fifty-two libraries replied. In the spring of 1947 the Standing Committee sent a revised questionnaire to these same seventy-seven libraries and to "public libraries of two hundred cities of over 50,000 population which were not already included. . . . A letter was sent to the director of every state library agency . . . asking for suggestions of other libraries in the state. . . ."¹⁴ Three hundred copies of this second questionnaire were sent out and there were 160 replies.

Here are comparisons of interest:

	1937	1947
Separate rooms for young people	9	40
Alcoves for young people	5	63
Special collections for young people	7	94
Full time assistants working with young people	18	153

Before describing some of the special facilities and activities which can make the library a community center for young people let me quote a few more significant statistics from these 1947 replies. "Only twenty-seven libraries reported *no* service for young people (though interpretations of just what constitutes service for young people are incredibly varied). Seventy libraries center their services in the adult department, sixteen in the children's department, and five have separate units. . . . The majority of the libraries have a permanent book collection for young people. . . but only sixty-five libraries (50 per cent of those reporting work with young people) have a special budget allowance for such books. In only nine libraries are books selected by a special committee, although thirty-two are on record as having a book reviewer's group. . . . It is significant that only twenty-nine libraries require professional training in their qualifications for this work, and only eight provide 'in-service training'."¹⁵

The final tabulation of the 160 questionnaires will furnish a clear picture of public library work with young people as it exists today. Even from this partial compilation, however, it is easy to see that although this special work has grown, librarians are not yet agreed

¹⁴Eileen P. Riols, "A Survey of Young People's Work," *A.L.A. Bulletin*, XLI (1947), p.47.

¹⁵*Ibid.*

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on the administration, staff, book selection, and activities of this service nor on the philosophy underlying it. A book now in preparation, *Public Library Plans for the Teen Age*¹⁶ should do much to clarify these points. In the meantime this paper will outline successful current practices and state some convictions.

YOUNG PEOPLE AND THEIR NEEDS TODAY

Most important in the consideration of this work are the young people themselves, the group from thirteen to twenty-one, so varied in interest and ability. These young people are no longer children but not quite adults. They may still read children's books but they resent being classed as children or relegated to a children's section. They are growing toward adult interests and adult books. They are noisy, sociable, alert, interested in a dozen things from the atom bomb to movie stars, busy as only young people can be with a heavy school schedule and a load of extracurricular and out-of-school activities. They are glib and assured on the surface, often uncertain and worried underneath. They are quick to resent injustice or antagonism but just as quick to accept suggestion and guidance from someone whom they trust. They are far more mature than their parents were at the same age; their reading is often wider and more critical than that of their elders. They need contact with adults to whom they can talk freely without a sense of regulation or obligation. They are a vital force which the library can both develop and use. They are the voters of tomorrow, the potential adult users and supporters of the public library, the emergent community to whom, theoretically, the public library belongs. Unless the public library recognizes their needs and serves them it will, as it has too often in the past, lose both their use and their support.

Young people's first need is for reading guidance and that is the major reason for the establishment of a special service for them.¹⁷ When they first come to the adult department, they are confused by hundreds of volumes by authors of whom they have never heard; left to themselves they may never find the authors and the subjects which

¹⁶A Standards Committee appointed by the Young People's Reading Round Table, under the chairmanship of Mabel Williams, has completed the manuscript of the proposed book. Some of the facts and suggestions made in this paper are based upon the first draft.

¹⁷Unequivocally stated in the manuscript prepared by the Standards Committee. Previously cited.

could change the course of their reading habits and enlarge their horizons. They must have access to a collection geared to their individual reading interests and abilities, and contact with a librarian who can fit books to the individual boy and girl.

BOOKS AND OTHER MATERIALS

Since there is no special body of literature for young people as there is for children, the book collection for young people includes titles from both the children's field and the adult field—although adult books predominate by perhaps a proportion of 80 per cent to 20 per cent.¹⁸ Expert book selection is the first step in furnishing reading guidance. This depends upon the librarian's ability to read widely, rapidly, critically, enthusiastically, and tolerantly. It means ability to understand and gauge the appeal and value of books which one might not read for one's own interest.

In some systems like the New York Public Library, a committee of young people's librarians meets monthly to review all new books of possible appeal to the teen age and to reconsider old titles which may or may not still have appeal. The result of this continuous reading and weeding is the annual "Books for Young People,"¹⁹ a list published by the New York Public Library. In small libraries such book selection is squarely up to the librarians in charge of the special work. There is need for more cooperative book discussion and reviewing among all persons concerned with young people's reading, i.e., among young people's librarians, teachers, parents, club leaders, and guidance counsellors. Certainly this implies professional training and sound book knowledge as prerequisites for young people's librarians if reading guidance is to be more than an empty phrase.

The predominant emphasis in the young people's collection is upon books related to the interests of young people themselves. The books are often arranged by such subjects as "science," "adventure," "humor," "sports," etc., rather than by Dewey. Magazines related to these interests are bought widely and freely—such ones as are suggested by the readers themselves: *Metronome*, *Sporting News*, *Baseball*, *Seventeen*, as well as the usual *Popular Mechanics*, *Life*, *Reader's Digest*, and the quality magazines. Since young people are, as May

¹⁸Based on the proportion in the Nathan Straus Branch young people's collection.

¹⁹"Books for Young People," *Branch Library Book News*. Each year the January issue is devoted entirely to books for the adolescent reader.

Lamberton Becker has put it "fiercely contemporary in their interests," a wise librarian recognizes the importance of magazines which are also "fiercely contemporary" in their appeal. Although reference books and materials are always accessible to the young people, their special collection consists largely of books for voluntary reading. Note that *recommendation* rather than *restriction* of titles is the keynote.

This is not meant to discount the importance of reference material for, and service to, young people. That is an integral part of work with them. However, unless the library is a large one, the young people use the reference service as adults, with the special young people's librarian providing guidance. In large libraries, a basic reference collection may be put aside for the "intermediates" in their own corner or room; but here again they will have ready access to the larger reference resources of the library when they need them. (No special collection or service to this group should ever be so set up that it segregates the teen-age from the adult department; its whole purpose is to introduce them to it.) It is through their reading collection that young people will link library experiences to voluntary or personal use rather than to school needs. It is through the informality of free reading that the young people's librarian may make individual contacts which lead to individual reading guidance, club activities, and programs.

LIBRARY QUARTERS

As far as the teen-agers themselves are concerned, informality, friendliness, and sociability are the factors which make any public library their community center. This trend toward informality is certainly reflected in the recent decoration and equipment of space set aside for young people. The Ella A. McClatchy Library is a home complete with furnishings—oriental rugs, upholstered furniture, and even a kitchen where groups may prepare refreshments! Brooklyn's new building has a large airy room with light furniture and bright exhibit spaces. Newark's Teen Corner, named by the young borrowers, provides easy chairs, bright walls and curtains, and colorful book displays. Milwaukee's Collegiate Room is outfitted with big brown leather chairs, sofas, deep pile carpet, low tables, and fluorescent lights. St. Paul's James H. Skinner Memorial Room has window

seats, benches, and chairs all upholstered in bright blue leather. On its twenty-first birthday in 1946, Cleveland's Robert Louis Stevenson Room gave the accolade to such informality when it added a Browsing Alcove furnished with low chairs, low tables, and floor lamps.²⁰ These are hopeful signs because they prove that librarians are thinking in young people's own terms and are aware that a library center for the teens must be attractive to them.

This should not imply that only libraries equipped with the latest in comfortable furniture and lighting can succeed in drawing young people; it does mean that even the oldest and the smallest libraries must consider the possibility of adding spots of color and a less formal setting. What meets the eye gives the first impression; in a dark formal place, the librarian has to work doubly hard to build an atmosphere of ease, although it *can* be done even there. At any rate, let there be wide realization that the public library's key to young people's service, and therefore to reading guidance, is the opportunity to prove that books are fun, reading a pleasure, and that the places where books and people meet are centers of activity and sociability.

It is obvious from the types of arrangements mentioned that the space for young people may be a building, a room, an alcove, or a section of shelves. It does seem important that there should be *designated* space for the group and that it should be associated with the adult department.

YOUNG PEOPLE AS BOOK REVIEWERS

After the selection and arrangement of books, reading guidance implies constant "floor work" and casual conversation with individual boys and girls—traditional library methods of fitting the book to the individual. It calls also for constant investigation of what the young people themselves think about books. The Brooklyn Public Library Young People's Division keeps printed forms for opinions about books and gets them! Hi-Teeners' alcove of a Minneapolis Public Library branch made use of a feature headed "What's good? Your pals rate these strictly solid" and at the bottom, "The empty space is for your favorite. What is it?" The Nathan Straus Branch keeps a notebook inviting "back talk" and its readers gladly write in their

²⁰Amelia H. Munson, "A Youth Library in Every Community," *General Federation Clubwoman*, XXVII (1947), 8-10.

frank comments on books and authors. Not only do these criticisms give librarians valuable information about reading interests and advertise books to other boys and girls, but they encourage readers to go beyond "I like" or "I don't like" to "Why I like or don't like."

Young people's opinions do count. Through constant contact with individuals who like to talk about books there is often a chance for the librarian to organize groups of reviewers who write longer reviews, who serve as a library committee on book selection for their age, and meet to discuss books with one another and with adults. Such activities are important in developing critical, intelligent reading and thought. They differ both in technique and purpose from the old-fashioned school book report.

From members who had written "back talk" notes, the Nathan Straus Branch organized the Nathan Straus Reviewers who over a period of three years have issued a bimonthly bulletin of book reviews and have had a number of meetings. The bulletin, *Circulatin' the News*, prints reviews of any books new or old, whether in the library or not. The only requirement is that the reviewers be under twenty-one. The library stresses the fact that this is *not* a recommended list of books for young people; it is a collection of reviews of books the reviewers have read. A librarian may be surprised, even dismayed, at some of the books the young people read. But is it not better, since they do read widely from books not in the library as well as those in it, to know what they think of their reading as a whole, rather than to confine our interest solely to the books we have picked for them? Reading guidance is not only helping a young person to find a book in the library. It includes talking to him intelligently about all his reading and matching his younger reactions with those of a mature critic.

Circulatin' the News has shown that young people under twenty-one have pertinent comments to make about books; often they are surprisingly shrewd in their detection of falsity and weakness. Such an outlet gives the young people an opportunity to express their opinions, under no compulsion, and starts them on the road to critical judgment. Moreover, it channels their opinions to adults who are creating and evaluating books eventually read by young people.²¹

²¹For fuller discussion of *Circulatin' the News* see Margaret C. Scoggin, "Our Readers Tell Us," *Library Journal*, LXX (1945), 567-69.

Meetings of the Nathan Straus Reviewers have come in response to requests from persons who want an immediate contact with articulate teen-agers. An author discussed with them the problem of putting ideas into sport stories; an editor asked for advice in choosing fiction for a teen-age girls' magazine; another magazine editor asked whether young people read book reviews and if so, what kind they prefer. Through such meetings the public library serves as an excellent means of contact between young people and adults who need their suggestions, and at the same time provides a fine type of reading guidance.

Book reviewing by young people is a natural activity of library clubs. The 1947 questionnaires listed eight reading clubs, two book clubs, and two book reviewing clubs in various libraries. As early as 1940, the Denver Public Library sponsored a High School Reading Round Table which planned and took part in five Saturday morning book reviews for young people. Portland, Oregon also reports book reviewing by teen-agers. In Wilkes-Barre, Pennsylvania a group of young people guided by the Public Library broadcasts a weekly program *Books for You*. Book reviewing groups may easily become radio book-reviewing groups. When New York's station WMCA decided to sponsor some sort of book reviewing program by and for young people, the Nathan Straus Reviewers furnished a nucleus of participants and the librarian of the Nathan Straus Branch agreed to serve as adult moderator. Each week a book chosen by the reviewers is discussed; the author or an editor or a critic is the guest; and the young people themselves provide a half-hour of unrehearsed discussion. Any young person who has read the book is free to take part. Here is a pattern for the use of any library which has access to a local radio station. Here is reading guidance which extends beyond library walls and yet is based soundly upon the librarian's knowledge of books and young people.

Another kind of book discussion is that tried out by the Washington, D.C. Public Library (Petworth Branch) which experimented with a program on "The Great Books" for young people. During July 1946, four meetings were held at which these books were considered: Plato's *Apology* and *Crito*, Plutarch's *Alcibiades* and *Alexander*, Machiavelli's *The Prince*, and Shakespeare's *Julius Caesar*. The group was so enthusiastic that the program was continued

THE LIBRARY AS A CENTER FOR YOUNG PEOPLE

through the following winter. The New York Public Library is considering a similar program with young people this fall.

RELATING LIBRARY SERVICE TO YOUNG PEOPLE'S INTERESTS

Not books alone but any interest which can be related to books and young people may be brought into library meetings and activities. The Detroit Public Library inaugurated a program for the teen-ager called "Let's look at this New World;" the emphasis was upon vocations with the subjects chosen by a committee of boys and girls. Topics were journalism, fashion, aeronautics, television, engineering, a general talk on vocational guidance, and two just for fun—new music and baseball. Although set in motion by the public library and its young people, this was a cooperative community venture because experts in the fields gave time and effort both to talks and exhibits. Newark Public Library's Teen Corner, with the aid of its council of members, sponsored a series of open house evenings for secondary schools in the city. The programs included a talk by a famous sports writer and the performance of a city-famous school band. Over twenty-five libraries reported this spring that they have planned programs for young people, some of them run as a series, some of a more occasional type.

Young people are vitally interested in music. What better way to highlight the library's music books than by the provision of record players and phonographs, record collections, and record programs? St. Paul's Skinner Room has had record concerts. In its Collegiate Room, Milwaukee Public Library has four record players, each equipped with two sets of earphones so that two persons can listen to the same record on a machine. The Ella A. McClatchy Library has a record room where members may come to play records from the library's collection or their own. In fact, on the 1947 questionnaires, thirty-eight libraries are reported as owning phonographs and thirty-one, radios.

The Nathan Straus Branch has a radio-victrola which young people may use at any time for playing their own records. Three years ago, Thursday jazz evenings were started for the benefit on an out-of-school gang who were interested in little except their own jazz records. These proved so popular that although the original group has moved on, the program continues. Records are mostly from the

young people's own collections and although their owners come to argue technically over merits, they incidentally get acquainted with librarians and library books. A number of listeners asked for classical and semi-classical music; the addition in the fall of 1944 of a staff member with musical training gave an opportunity for some constructive work. Now every Friday evening is classical night and the program is made up of the fans' requests which have ranged from Gilbert and Sullivan to Chopin and Beethoven. Some of the records are theirs and some are borrowed from the library's large music branch. Such musical evenings show the increasing importance of records in music appreciation and give the public library an opportunity for furthering such appreciation.

Motion pictures are an important medium of communication that the public library can relate to young people's interests. Twenty-seven libraries report owning projectors while many more borrow or rent them to make use of films in connection with specific programs. Brooklyn Public Library conducted a series of film forums for adults but admitted high school students and asserts that the young people were the most interested participants. Several of the New York Public Library branches have had film forums and the Young People's Lounge of the St. Agnes Branch had standing room only when it cooperated with the neighborhood Police Athletic League to show a film on boxing. Newark reports one movie, *Mutiny on the Bounty*, so successful that many requests came for other programs. Obviously the use of motion pictures in library work with young people is not merely to furnish free entertainment in competition with motion picture theaters; it is primarily to link young people's interests with books, to provide a basis for discussion, and to develop both appreciation and critical judgment.

COOPERATION WITH OTHER YOUTH AGENCIES

Closely associated with these programs planned in the library with young people are those in which the library cooperates with other agencies to reach youth. The most important of these hardly needs discussion. Each public library should work with its neighboring schools so that every young person has an opportunity to visit the library for introduction to its uses and to the contents of good, appealing books; the first responsibility of the young people's li-

brarians outside the library is to the schools. But beyond that is the need for cooperation with every other neighborhood agency and club which touches young people.

The public library which welcomes books of all nations and peoples to its shelves can foster international understanding among its young people. It is a common meeting ground of all nationalities and all groups. The Nathan Straus Library has had several evenings of fun and friendship in which students from other countries, who are studying in New York, have been invited to meet selected high school students. These evenings have provided entertainment which both groups might enjoy—book and art exhibits, discussions, music, and refreshments. They have highlighted the library's success in introducing individuals to individuals, the only kind of introduction which, according to Pearl Buck, can really assure world peace.²²

In 1945-1946 Cleveland's Youth Department, with the Cleveland Press World Friends' Club and the Junior Council on World Affairs, planned a program "to foster and develop world citizenship and greater international understanding among young people; to stimulate constructive and logical thinking upon world problems; to stimulate world discussion."²³ The emphasis here, too, was on the human approach—the way people live, think, and act. Public and parochial schools endorsed the series. Eight key countries including The Netherlands, The British Commonwealth, Russia, and China were chosen. No one method was used for the programs. "Different techniques included talks, panels, and round tables followed by youth participation in lively discussion."²⁴ There were also sound films, national music and dancing, and recordings. Books, pamphlets, exhibits (many loaned by museums), and letters from pen pals abroad furnished up-to-the-minute information. Exhibits and short reading lists made an immediate link with the library and its shelves. This series was so popular, drawing from 250 to 600 young people, that a similar series has been run through 1946-1947. Out of it also came plans for similar neighborhood programs in branch libraries and other centers.

²²This is the underlying thesis of the East and West Association of which Pearl Buck is founder and president.

²³Jean C. Roos, "A Youth Department Points the Way," *Library Journal*, LXXII (1947), 279-82.

²⁴*Ibid.*

In Baltimore this past year, the Young People's Librarian was sponsor for the United Nations Youth Group in that city. She had the support of the Youth Committee of the Rotary Club. Eighteen high school students were sent to the New York Herald Tribune Forum at the expense of the Rotary Club. "The big stunt was bringing the South American delegates (all of them young people) to Baltimore for three days. The visit opened with a program at the library on Sunday afternoon with about 1000 attending. . . . The Educational Committee of the United Nations Youth (under the Young People's Librarian's supervision) mimeographed an attractive booklist on South America which was given out to all who attended. At the end of the visit, there was a big banquet in one of the high school cafeterias. The Library, the Rotary Club, and the United Nations group formed a trio for the whole program. . . ." ²⁵ The Young People's Librarian of Baltimore believes that "when the library can work through other organizations, it is often more effective than in organizing its own clubs, though both activities are good." ²⁶

The value of these library programs lies in their almost spontaneous response to young people's interests and in their flexibility. No library should ever set up a rigidly planned series to be run indefinitely. Rather the library should experiment, test, and develop plans which can be adapted by other libraries. Young people themselves are like quicksilver in their varied interests. With its work surely founded on the principle that all young people's interests are valuable and may be related to books and ideas, the library will reflect in its varied activities and programs a surface mobility. But this surface mobility is never to be mistaken for lack of basic stability!

These activities show that the public library has countless ways of developing its importance to youth. Wherever young people themselves have been invited to share the work, they have responded immediately. At least six libraries report youth councils working with their youth departments; less formal but equally interested groups of young people form unofficial advisory committees for their local branches. These councils and committees share with the young people's librarian the planning, publicizing, and carrying out of the

²⁵Quoted from a written report, July 1947, from the Young People's Librarian of the Baltimore, Maryland, Public Library, Mrs. Margaret Alexander Edwards.

²⁶*Ibid.*

whole program of work with young people. They are proof that another way to make the public library a community center for the teen-age group is to share with it some of the planning and problems.

OUT-OF-SCHOOL YOUTH

A major problem in the cooperation of the library with young people is the question of how to effectively reach out-of-school youth, groups in need of vocational guidance, delinquents, etc. It is apparent from the answers to the 1947 questionnaires that the librarians depend largely upon close work with agencies who may serve these specific groups. Only a few places have any special approach to the young people leaving school. Cleveland has worked out cards of invitation to the library for high school graduates. A few libraries get the names of young people who have been granted working permits and circularize them. In the New York Public Library an attempt is made to have a librarian visit all seventh- and eighth-term high school classes to explain the library resources open to members of the communities. Perhaps here is a spot where more work needs to be done.

Eleven libraries report that they work with vocational guidance and vocation groups in their neighborhoods. Fifty work with youth organizations such as Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, church groups, community centers. Twenty-five work closely with civic groups interested in young people. Most work done with delinquents consists of sending collections of books to agencies, to juvenile courts, etc. In general, the young person who leaves school for work is harder to identify in the community than the high school or college student. Aside from attempting to educate him before he leaves school and sending him special invitations to use the library after he has left, most libraries depend upon clubs and agencies for reaching him. This cannot be completely successful for there are many young people who do not join clubs. However, there is evidence that the young people's librarians should not rely only on meeting individuals and groups within the library. They should be the official library representatives on all councils and committees of youth-serving agencies. Brooklyn reports membership of its young people's librarians in youth agency councils. Young people's librarians in New York have served on councils of social agencies and police precincts.

One other means of reaching young people has not yet been sufficiently explored to permit much comment. It is known that young people both in and out of school tend to form their own autonomous social and sport clubs. Where the public library has space, sometimes an offer of that space will bring these groups in and make of them friendly users of the library. There need be little fear that these groups will abuse the privilege of meeting in the library; if they are up to no good, they will hardly come to such a public place. The Nathan Straus Branch has had some interesting groups in its club room—some six or seven athletic clubs and, at present, a very earnest little group of boys and girls who plan social activities. These are often the boys and girls who come rather unwillingly to a library until they realize that their interests are the interests of the library.

CONCLUSION

These, then, are some of the services and activities which are important in making the public library a community center for young people. But several warnings must be voiced. The library is primarily an agency which deals with individuals. It identifies individual interests and then tries to foster and enlist those interests by tying them in with books and activities. Since it does identify also persons of like interests, it works with groups. Its own programs should grow naturally out of its work with individuals; where it sponsors meetings and programs, it believes that individuals will profit by them. Ideally, library meetings are small and informal. They cannot compete with the large-scale forum and assembly; if they are trying to, there is misunderstanding of the library's peculiar contribution—informal, voluntary, person-to-person education.

Another warning: The public library is a facility before it is a program. Its use depends more upon trained personnel than upon any other single factor because only as librarians guide them will individuals be able to make full use of facilities. No public library can base a claim to young people's service upon delegated space and books alone or upon an occasional program. Young people's work exists only when it is in charge of a trained young people's librarian who knows books and young people (and is acceptable to them), who has both responsibility and money for book selection, who is free to spend time both on the floor of the library and outside with

schools and other agencies. Young people's work depends upon steady day-by-day helpfulness to individual boys and girls, informal book talks, helpful discussion of problems with a group around the desk, patient clarification of reference needs and school assignments. Of course, clubs and programs and activities may lead to excellent reading and publicity but they are not the beginning of work with young people. If you look behind those programs which are truly successful, you will see how firmly rooted they are in the specific library's recognition of its responsibility to young people and in an adequate groundwork of trained personnel, books, space, money, time and understanding. These are the real keynotes of a successful program of service to young people.

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Evaluating the Effectiveness of Public Libraries as Agencies of Communication for Youth

MARY R. LUCAS

A DEFINITION of the terms *evaluating*, *effectiveness*, and *communication*, as used in this paper, seems essential at this point. Evaluating means appraising or judging something and it frequently implies comparison. What processes are involved in appraising or evaluating activities? First, it is necessary to formulate the values or the objectives of the activity to be evaluated. A second step involves determining the extent to which these objectives are being attained. In connection with the subject of this paper a third procedure is needed, i.e., ascertaining how adequate or how *effective* these objectives and their attainment are for agencies of communication for children and young people.

Waples, Berelson and Bradshaw in their book *What Reading Does to People*¹ give several meanings to the term *communication*. One connotation that has particular significance for the topic now under consideration involves that social process of communication which includes the sharing of certain attitudes and beliefs over periods of time. Print, motion pictures, radio, and other materials of communication contribute to this social process of communicating attitudes and beliefs.

Reading as a medium of communication differs from the other arts of communication in that it alone proceeds at a rate of speed which the reader himself controls. Reading clarifies and also formulates ideas for youth; it helps to express the ideas born of the readers' common experience—the sharing of ideas with the writer, or the development of ideas formulated because of a spark ignited by some-

¹Douglas Waples, Bernard Berelson, and Franklin Bradshaw, *What Reading Does to People* (Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Pr., 1940), p.28.

thing the writer has put into print. The public library seems to be a natural agency or instrument for the dissemination of print and for furthering the communication of ideas. How effective its programs have been along these lines remains to be seen.

OBJECTIVES OF LIBRARY SERVICE TO YOUTH

As already stated, the first process involved in evaluating the activities of the library in the areas of social communication requires a definition of the library's objectives for its services to children and youth. The most commonly accepted objectives for library service to children and young people in public libraries may be briefly stated as follows:

- To support a program adequate to the needs of all the children and young people of the community
- To provide trained personnel with psychological and sociological knowledge of children and youth and a scientific understanding of reading as a medium of communication
- To provide a well-selected collection of books and nonbook materials adapted to the needs of the children and youth of the community
- To organize these materials for effective use in the library's program of service to youth; to bring about the active participation of the group for which the program is planned

In other words, we could say to *encourage social communication*.

THE NEEDS OF YOUTH

Having stated the general principles or objectives which govern a public library's program we must next analyze the needs of youth in developing ideas and understandings, in order that we may determine whether the objectives meet these needs.

The ideas of most children are conditioned by the beliefs or attitudes held by the family and by what they are taught in school. A fact is usually accepted as a fact because children have not yet had the time or faced the necessity for comparative thinking. Young people in their teens are, or should be, approaching a point where they begin to question what is laid down as fact, either orally or in print. In other words, they feel the need to develop ideas and beliefs of their own. Children need to be constantly presented with new facts in order to build up a field of knowledge. Young people need to be encouraged

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to think about these facts, to encounter differing points of view about them, and to discuss their own nebulous ideas and beliefs with other people. Every medium of communication—the spoken word, print, and audio-visual materials—should be employed in meeting these needs of children and young people for information and for personal thinking.

Do the objectives of the public library meet the needs of children in developing a social consciousness? Certainly the support of an adequate program is a first step; trained personnel who understand the needs of children and youth are necessary to carry out the program; and the program cannot be developed unless the tools with which to work are provided, i.e., books and nonbook materials which fit the needs of children and young people. Finally the program and the tools should be organized so that children and young people are encouraged to participate actively in that program because it fits their needs.

DO LIBRARIES MEET THESE NEEDS?

It seems, therefore, that the library's objectives and the needs of children and youth have a common meeting ground. Not all libraries are fulfilling these objectives and I am sure that all of us would say that no one library is fulfilling them 100 per cent. In addition, great numbers of children and young people have no access to library service of any form. All libraries can provide well-chosen collections of books for young people and encourage the reading of them; they can put before children and young people the facts and ideas which can be absorbed and developed. Libraries can also provide nonbook materials such as radio, motion pictures, music, or recordings to help in the process of mental development, to encourage the nonreader or the one who is slow in investigating the potentialities to be found in the medium of print. In addition, there are certain kinds of service, other than providing books, which have come to be accepted as part of the library program for children and young people and form excellent media for the diffusion of ideas. Examples of these are the story hour and book talks.

It is the purpose of this paper to consider ways of testing the library's effectiveness in utilizing these materials and media with the youth of its community. Four types of evaluation that seem to be

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potential instruments for studying the effectiveness of the library's service to youth are described briefly and general findings as to their adequacy are presented. They are as follows: an analysis of the programs of libraries known to have good service and those having poor service, the formulation of national standards of library service to children that can be used in measuring such service, the appraisal of work units, and the survey.

AN ANALYSIS OF SERVICE TO YOUTH

In order to get some evidence on the question of the effectiveness of the library as an agency of communication and in order to obtain facts about the general program of libraries throughout the country as agencies of communication, a questionnaire was sent to a group of libraries in six states which were rated by the state library agency as doing very good work with children and young people. A second group of libraries was chosen, from the same states, which did not receive a rating of "good" in regard to their services for children and young people. It was hoped that, through the answers to this questionnaire, some general patterns might appear and that some bases for evaluating the library's services could be determined. Although the sample used was small (fifty-eight libraries provided information about their service to children and young people), it did include libraries in New England, the South, and the Far West. County libraries as well as city and town libraries were represented.

One fact emerged from this questionnaire: complete statistical information about library service to children and young people was lacking in most situations.

STATISTICS OF USE

Most library service is measured or evaluated in terms of quantity. So far, we have not been able to devise a satisfactory method for measuring *quality*. The first group of questions in the questionnaire asked whether statistical records were kept of such items as circulation, number of registered borrowers, reference and book selection questions, and similar data which might enable the librarians to evaluate their services even if only on a quantitative basis. It was interesting to find that there was no great difference in the statistics supplied by the higher and lower ranking libraries. The number

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which kept records of book selection questions showed an almost even percentage between the two different groups of libraries, i.e., 22.6 per cent of the recommended libraries and 23.1 per cent of the nonrecommended group. One rather notable difference, for which no explanation was apparent, was in the matter of the number of libraries that kept a record of the reference questions. The percentage of recommended libraries which kept such a record was 26.7 per cent whereas the percentage for the nonrecommended libraries was 69.2 per cent.

METHODS OF READING GUIDANCE

In the second group of questions an attempt was made to ascertain the variety of media used by public libraries in their service to children—story hours, book talks, music, recordings, radio listening, and motion pictures. Storytelling was used in practically all libraries. Book talks were used more in the recommended than in the nonrecommended group although the percentage of difference was slight. The use of music, recordings, radio listening groups, and motion pictures in recommended libraries ranged for the different media from seventeen to thirty-five. In the nonrecommended group it ranged for the different media from seven to twenty-three; moving pictures were used more in the nonrecommended group of libraries than in the recommended group.

The last question sought to get an expression of opinion from the children's librarians as to the effectiveness of certain media in creating an appreciation of literature or reading. Books, as would be expected, ranked first. The other media, in order of their effectiveness, were moving pictures, book lists, radio, and recordings. From the comments made by the librarians answering the questionnaire, the widest difference of opinion seemed to center around the value of the book list as a means of creating interest. Many felt that it was a very good instrument for introducing books to children; others felt that it was a most ineffective method. All agreed that the oral approach was the most successful way to arouse interest.

Of the libraries investigated, less than one-third had any accurate idea of the amount of reference service or book selection aid which they gave to children. Certainly, if we are to serve as agencies of communication that present facts and ideas to children we need to

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have some measure of our effectiveness. Just knowing how many books are circulated and how many children in the community belong to the library is not enough.

SERVICE TO ADOLESCENTS

The libraries which answered the questions about their work with young people made an even poorer showing, and yet the library's service to these young people is extremely important because they are beginning to formulate their ideas and need help and encouragement in their thinking. Less than half of the libraries kept any record of the circulation of books to this group or had any idea of how many young people had library cards. Only 10 per cent of the recommended libraries had any record of the amount of book selection or readers' advisory service which they gave to young people, and only 3.8 per cent knew how much reference help had been given. Very few of the nonrecommended libraries provided any specialized service for young people, and none of those who offered this service kept any record of reference and book selection questions.

The returns on the public relations program, i.e., school and community contacts, of the libraries reporting showed, at least statistically, that this part of their program was good, although the record of visits to community centers by the young people's librarians was only 44.8 per cent.

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS FROM SERVICE ANALYSIS

As stated earlier, the second group of questions was aimed at finding out what kinds of activities were provided and the personnel available to carry out the program. In the libraries that were rated by their state library agencies as doing especially good work, 82 per cent had a trained person who gave practically full time to work with children, but only 42 per cent reported that this person was free from clerical routines. In the field of service to young people only 50 per cent of the libraries had personnel who devoted the major part of their time to work with this group.

An analysis of the list of activities, constructed on the basis of what was considered to be a part of a library's program for children and young people, shows that the media used by progressive libraries were story hours, book talks, music, recordings, clubs, radio listening

groups, and summer reading programs. Story hours and book talks for children were used in almost 100 per cent of the cases, and about 85 per cent had special summer reading programs. Only 35 per cent had club groups or used recordings as a special activity; radio listening groups and moving pictures were reported by less than 20 per cent of the libraries.

As we have said, young people need to discuss their growing ideas and beliefs, and yet only slightly over half of the libraries reporting provided book talks or discussions for this group; only about 15 per cent used recordings; about 20 per cent used the radio as a basis for discussion; and about 12 per cent used moving pictures. The respondents felt that there was potential value in audio-visual materials but that these were no substitute for reading in developing ideas and appreciation; that judicious use should be made of audio-visual aids so that they will not become a substitute for reading. How much the nonreader, i.e., the person to whom reading is a hard task, gets from audio-visual communication has not yet been determined. Public libraries, however, should be aware of the need to try these newer media of communication.

Numerous factors are involved in measuring the quality of the work with children and young people. On the basis of the results of this limited survey, and on the basis of facts obtained from reading and observation, it would be my opinion that many libraries are doing an average job, but that more libraries are lagging behind in attaining the objectives which should be basic for all libraries. There are many reasons for this condition, but the most evident ones are lack of money and lack of personnel. If we are honest, we will also include lack of vision in some cases.

The outlook seems gloomy but this should only be a challenge to all of us—administrators, children's librarians, young people's librarians—to learn more about the needs of children and youth and the processes involved in the communication of ideas. We need to restudy our objectives and to be sure that they really do fit the needs of youth. The scope of our programs should be broadened; and certainly we need more people to develop the program and to carry out the objectives. We should experiment with and investigate to a greater extent than we do now the media other than print which are used in communication, but we should never lose sight of the poten-

tial powers of print nor let nonprint materials weaken these powers.

Our greatest need today, if we are to develop a dynamic program, is personnel. It may be said at this point that the development of library service to children and young people can be secured only if it is in the hands of professionally trained people who are interested in and adapted to the work. The librarians of today and of the future need more than an interest in children and young people. Understanding of children and young people is no longer an intuitive matter; it must be based on scientific knowledge of child and adolescent psychology, on a knowledge of social problems affecting the child, and on a knowledge of the reading abilities, difficulties and needs of youth.

NATIONAL STANDARDS

A second method for evaluating the effectiveness of library service to youth in public libraries is the measurement of such service against standards or norms. For more than two years a committee has been working on the formulation of standards for public library service to children. Although this work is not yet in its final stage, some preliminary comments may be made here. The committee has attempted to formulate certain questions which all libraries might use as a measuring stick in evaluating their services to children. These measures could also serve as possible goals to work towards.

In evaluating the library's book collection for children five questions might be asked, each question to be answered in terms of "superior," "good," or "limited"; these would serve as measuring criteria. For example, how many of the books recommended for first purchase in the *Children's Catalog* does the library have?

If the library has all of the titles, the rating would be "superior"; if 60 per cent of these titles, "good"; and if less than 50 per cent, "limited."

Samples of other questions follow: How many books per child in the population does the library have? (More than 5 books per child would be rated as "superior," and so on.) How much of the total book budget is spent for children's books? How often is the collection reviewed for dated material? How many books are circulated in a year to each child registered?

As a quantitative measure for the evaluation of service, a table of

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quantitative standards similar to those in the school library standards² was planned, these standards to be based on the practice now in use in a number of libraries which could qualify as "superior" or "good" as measured by the standards developed in *Post-War Standards for Public Libraries*.³ An example of such a table is presented here; it should be emphasized that these standards are tentative and merely suggestive.

TABLE 6
QUANTITATIVE STANDARDS
SUGGESTED FOR CHILDREN'S LIBRARY SERVICE

Population Urban or Rural	Juvenile Population 5-14 Years*	Percent Registered Borrowers	Annual Circula- tion per Juvenile Population	Size of Book Stock	Percent of Total Book Budget for Children's Books	Professional Staff†
Less than 25,000		90	35	5 books per child	35	1
25,000-40,000		75	30	25,000-40,000	33	1½-2
40,000-100,000		65	25	40,000-65,000	33	2-5
100,000-200,000		55	20	65,000-170,000	30	5-7
200,000-1,000,000		45	15	170,000-800,000	30	7-35
Over 1,000,000		35	10	800,000 and over	28	35-60

*The national average for this is 17 per cent. The variance from this figure is so wide throughout the country that each library should ascertain its own total from the local population census or school enrollment figures.

†One children's librarian, assisted by one part-time professional and sufficient clerical staff to handle circulation of books, can successfully administer library service to a juvenile clientele of 2500 to 3500, their teachers, parents, and other adults.

AN APPRAISAL OF WORK UNITS

A third type of evaluating library service is represented by the study made by Dr. Edward Wight, "A Study of Weighted Work Units in Branch Libraries of the Newark Public Library" (unpublished). Some of his findings, as they relate to children's service, are very sig-

²American Library Association. Division of Libraries for Children and Young People, *School Libraries for Today and Tomorrow: Functions and Standards*, prepared by the Committees on Post-War Planning of the American Library Association, Division of Libraries for Children and Young People and Its Section, The American Association of School Librarians, Mrs. Mary Peacock Douglas, Chairman. (Chicago: American Library Association, 1945).

³American Library Association. Committee on Post-War Planning, *Post-War Standards for Public Libraries*. (Chicago: American Library Association, 1943).

nificant for us. We had factual data for the rate of time needed to circulate a book, and a time estimate was then made for all the other types of work to be weighted. The professional tasks for both the adult and juvenile professional assistants were measured for the amount of time devoted to them; the following were included: titles considered and/or selected; displays and/or exhibits; reference questions; reader's advisory questions; bibliographies prepared; classes visited; class visits to the library; story hours; club meetings at the library; discussions or forums; library committee meetings; community meetings. One of the significant facts which appeared from this analysis was the greater proportion of work units of the professional staff assigned to children's work in comparison with the adult work in the following professional tasks: selection of titles, reader's advisory questions, preparation of bibliographies, and work with groups. My reason for feeling that this study is significant is that it is one of the few times that our professional work has been measured in terms of the amount of work which we do and it shows we do much in a limited amount of time.

THE SURVEY METHOD

I should like to describe briefly a fourth type of evaluating procedure. In June, I was asked to survey the children's department of the public library of Oakland, California, and to make recommendations for its reorganization. In no surveys of libraries that I could find was there more than a superficial analysis of the children's service; therefore it was necessary to decide what should be measured and what data should be collected in order to obtain reliable and valid conclusions from the survey. A rough outline of some of the methods used may be of interest here. Because of the short time available for the work, a set of questions was prepared which was filled out by all branch libraries, by the main children's room, and by the schools department of the public library.

The questionnaire contained the following six parts: Part I. The physical organization of the branch or department, i.e., date of establishment, type of building, area for adult and juvenile service, hours of opening and staff assigned; Part II. Description of the community; Part III. Registration; Part IV. Analysis of the circulation; Part V. Evaluation of the children's book collection; Part VI. Special services

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provided for children. Provision was also made for the persons filling out the questionnaire to note the good and poor points of their service in that particular branch or department, and also to express an opinion on what to do to develop the children's service.

Additional statistical information was obtained from the main offices; the civil service requirements for all children's librarians and related positions were obtained. Interviews were held with the Chief Librarian, the Personnel Officer, the Head of the Branch Department, the Chief Children's Librarian, and with the Assistant Director of School Libraries under the Board of Education. Two days were spent in visiting and observing branches of various sizes and kinds and in different types of communities. This information was necessary in order to get a complete picture of the present organization and administration and of the extent of the public library's service to the children of the community, to prepare the way for evaluating this service in terms of its total effectiveness, and to make the necessary recommendations. Since no comprehensive survey of library service to children is available in print, it is hoped that the Oakland survey will result in a description of surveying procedures that may be available to other libraries wishing to evaluate their service to children.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, I might say that I am not sure that the types of evaluation that have been described here will give us a true measure for evaluating the effectiveness of libraries as agencies of communication for youth; but at least we are trying to perfect our methods of evaluation and we are trying to find out how good our service is. It was stated in the beginning that evaluation was the appraisal of the objectives which we have formulated. The various studies reported here do represent methods for this appraisal of the achievement of objectives. We have demonstrated the fact that the library is an important agency of communication, but we probably have not established as yet any true measure for the *effectiveness* of the library's work in communicating attitudes and beliefs to the children and young people. We need to know much more about youth and to understand more fully the socio-psychological potentialities of communication and the part that the public library can and should play in achieving its functions as a true agency of communication.

Evaluating the Effectiveness of School Libraries as Agencies of Communication for Youth

SUE HEFLEY

AN EXAMINATION of the possibilities for evaluating school library service in terms of the library's function as an agency of communication lends itself naturally to a division of four parts: how adequately is the *substance* of communication represented; how completely are all appropriate *media* of communication utilized in the program of library service; how many of the *factors of catalysis* are present in the communicative process; to what degree is there acceptance of the substance of communication by the individual, or to what degree is the nature and pattern of behavior of the individual changed thereby.

SCHOOL LIBRARY SERVICE AND THE SUBSTANCE OF COMMUNICATION

The needs of the individual determine how appropriate are the substances of communication in the school library. Environment helps to determine the needs of an individual, whether those needs are mental, physical, emotional, or spiritual. Significant elements in the individual's environment are his home, school, and community. The philosophy of the school as well as its objectives and curricula form the basis of rather predictable needs, although the most predictable of these is subject to modification, change, or even obsolescence.

In his relation to school library service, the individual is not only a member of the school group; he is first a member of his home and community groups. In categorizing the needs of the individual it is necessary to consider his relationship to these groups, although first consideration must be given to the requirements which emerge as the result of the individual's personality.

EVALUATING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF SCHOOL LIBRARIES

All needs and the individual's effort to satisfy them dictate the pattern of living. Some needs are not subject to satisfaction through the employment of communicative arts or processes, but those which are must be considered as determining the substance of communication appropriate for presentation through school library service.

SCHOOL LIBRARY SERVICE AND THE MEDIA OF COMMUNICATION

The spoken word, the pictured idea, and the written symbol are the media through which the substance of communication is transmitted and needs in communication are met. The school library is a center of communication to the degree which its program appropriately employs the various media at its command in the satisfaction of the communication needs of those dependent upon its services.

The spoken word as a medium of communication appropriate for inclusion in school library services is represented by the recording, the sound film, and the radio program (live or committed to transcription). The pictured idea is perhaps no more popular today as a medium of communication than it has always been, but it is certainly more widely recognized than formerly. It should be employed in the library for its own worth and not with the possibility that its utilization may lead to the acceptance of other media of communication more traditionally associated with library service. Representatives of the third symbol, the written one, have been accepted as a legitimate part of libraries too long to need further comment here.

All of the media enumerated are employed in the modern school library to transmit the ideas appropriate for use in satisfying the communication needs of those dependent upon its services.

SCHOOL LIBRARY SERVICE AND CATALYTIC AGENTS IN THE COMMUNICATIVE PROCESS

The communicative process is not complete without the reception of the substance of communication and its assimilation by the individual. There are certain factors which, if present, prepare the individual for receptivity and which hasten the process by which the nature of the individual is changed by the substance communicated.

One enumeration of these factors is found as a part of the report of a committee attempting to evaluate the use of materials of instruction (interpreted to include all materials used in the educational pro-

gram) in certain schools in East Baton Rouge Parish in Louisiana. This committee, which began its work in the spring of 1946, was composed of both teachers and school administrators. While no practicing school librarian was included, there was committee consultation with the librarian in each school in which the committee functioned. A paragraph introductory to the mimeographed committee report gives the committee viewpoint: "The Committee believes that a school can be evaluated in the area of materials of instruction in terms of *present use* and in terms of *planned expansion* which looks toward meeting every need for materials in the total educational program. Principles (in the use of materials) have been used as criteria for evaluation."¹ The report was given a three-column design; factors which may determine the degree to which materials are effectively used are enumerated in the first column, observation of practice related to each factor is stated in the second, and committee recommendation related to statement of factor and observation of practice is given in the third. The factors enumerated in column one may be termed catalytic agents in the communicative process.

This statement of factors represents the work of one specific group evaluating a program in a particular situation; other groups might well present different statements for such factors. The factors are given here for the limited expression which they represent, and to bring generalities to a focus.

Factors which may determine the degree to which materials are used effectively in a school situation:

1. Housing of the library is a factor in the use of materials.
2. Attractiveness of surroundings is a factor in the use of materials.
3. Adequacy and condition of materials are factors in their use.
4. Location of materials is a factor in their use.
5. Organization of materials is a factor in their use.
6. Appropriate equipment of the classroom is a factor in use of materials.
7. Adequate lighting is a factor in the use of materials.
8. Adequacy and condition of library equipment are factors in the use of materials.

¹East Baton Rouge Parish, Office of The Superintendent of Schools, *Report of Committee on Materials of Instruction* (Baton Rouge, The Office, 1946). A mimeographed form, distributed to schools within the parish.

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9. Teacher-choice of school library materials is a factor in their use.
10. Teacher-acquaintance with school library materials is a factor in their use.
11. Speedy supply of materials in new areas of instruction is a factor in their use.
12. Availability of librarian and teachers for pupil-guidance in materials selection is a factor in their use.
13. Vitality of classroom instruction . . . is the most important single factor in the use of materials. Preuse planning is a factor in the use of materials.
14. Student independence is a factor in the use of materials.
15. Pupil-accountability for textbooks is essential.
16. Acceptable craftsmanship in pupil-constructed materials is essential in their utilization in education. Preconstruction planning and supervision of execution of a project in construction are implied.
17. Framed pictures hanging in classrooms and in halls constitute a significant type of instructional pupil-developmental aid.
18. Suitability of materials to pupil interests and capabilities is a factor in their use.
19. Teacher-awareness of out-of-school sources of materials is a factor in their use.
20. School policy is a factor in the use of materials.

Factors which may determine the degree to which expansion in the use of materials is effectively planned:

1. Teacher-examination of actual items considered for acquisition is a factor in planned expansion and ultimately in the use of materials.
2. Preacquisition experimental use of new materials, on the parish and school level, is a factor in planned expansion and ultimately, in the use of materials.
3. Teacher-examination of sources of all types of possible acquisitions is a factor in planned expansion.
4. Systematic provision of financial support is a factor in planned expansion.

This statement of factors can be criticized for looseness of organization, inadequate coverage, and unevenness of emphasis, but it does represent a certain individuality in approach to a problem in evaluation, and it furnishes one instance of the recognition that certain factors are favorable to the use of materials, or to reception of the substance of communication by the individual.

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SCHOOL LIBRARY SERVICE AND ACCEPTANCE OF THE SUBSTANCE OF COMMUNICATION

An inventory of needs to be met through communicative processes, the employment of appropriate media, and the provision of agents of catalysis have no meaning except in terms of consequent characterization of the individual whose need in communication is the basis of the service presented. Not until the individual served is affected by the substance communicated is there any accomplishment. Librarian-teacher consultation regarding selection of materials, meticulous organization of materials for quick reference, instruction in the use of books and libraries, and all of the other phases of school library service are directed toward this objective. Recognition of that service as incomplete to the degree in which the objective is not attained, and acceptance of the obligation to include the idea of change in the user as a significant part of any evaluation of school library service are evidences of one concept of the educational function of the school library. Any concept which measures less than this in width and depth consigns the school library to the status of a noneducational agency operated mechanically to supply meaningless materials in meaningless situations.

INSTRUMENTS OF MEASUREMENT AND EVALUATION

Evaluation of the effectiveness of school library service is not new. Any reaction to a service offered constitutes one type of evaluation. All evaluation may take the form of involuntary unexpressed reaction or it may be a planned expression elaborately designed.

An instrument of measurement differs from an instrument of evaluation; the former deals with a count of specifics which is a relatively simple operation; the latter deals with an estimation of the degree to which intangibles have been attained. Its application must necessarily reflect the characteristics of the evaluator and is always subject to limitation thereby. In actual practice, the elements of measurement and evaluation are often found in one instrument.

It is easy to use an instrument of establishment as an instrument of measurement or evaluation of the service established. In Louisiana, school library service is based on a legal provision made forty-one years ago—in 1906. Section 1 of the legislative enactment “. . . provided further, that at times other than during the school term the library

shall be kept in a locked case provided for under this act." Section 4 of the enactment provided that ". . . upon application of the parish superintendent, the parish board of school directors shall furnish, to each library, at the expense of the public school funds, a neat book-case, with lock and key."²

A reading of this provision sounds quaint at the present time, but until other instruments of measurement or evaluation were formulated, it was possible for library performance to be examined in terms of the specifics recognized in the legal provision. In 1937 standards of the type now generally known as quantitative were set up in Louisiana by its educational authorities. Library service was and is still examined against the specifics recognized in these standards. Annual statistical reports are so designed. In 1942 a handbook of policy and practice for school libraries was prepared and issued as a cooperative effort on the part of the Library School of Louisiana State University and the Department of Education. The handbook carries the quantitative standards previously approved, but suggests as an instrument of evaluation an adaption of the *Evaluative Criteria*, 1940 edition,³ which has generally come to be regarded as representative of qualitative standards. Annual narrative reports, as distinguished from annual statistical reports, have from the first been characterized by individuality in design and have afforded opportunity for evaluation in terms of outcomes rather than in terms of provision for the physical library. The schools in this state are subject to accreditation by the Southern Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges. Standards recognized by that Association and translated into an annual report to be submitted to Association officials provide a framework for critical examination of school library services. Standards and functions which have their expression in the American Library Association's *School Libraries for Today and Tomorrow* have, since the appearance of the publication in 1945, been recognized in the state as applicable to an examination of school library services. At the present date instruments of measurement and evaluation are admittedly in the developmental stage; indeed, they are probably in their infancy. Perhaps the "factors list" formulated by

²Louisiana State Department of Education, *Fifteenth Compilation of School Laws*, Bulletin No. 333 (Baton Rouge, The Department, 1936), p.57-9.

³Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards, *Evaluative Criteria* (1940 ed.; Washington: The Study, 1939).

the East Baton Rouge committee, to which reference has already been made, is illustrative of the emergence of another type of instrument—one designed for a specific situation by a specific group, without imitative reference to what has been done or is being done elsewhere.

This brief account of the evolution of instruments of measurement and evaluation in one state may be fairly typical. Certainly many states offer examples of legal provisions for the school library. No study of such legal provisions is presented here; it is assumed that such a study would yield little evidence of the emergence of a dependable instrument of evaluation. However, the possibility should not be dismissed too lightly. One current law provides that "the school board . . . may appoint as librarian any suitable person." This may be an expression of a truly advanced approach to provision of adequate library service since into the word "suitable" must be read all manner of desirable qualifications in training, experience, personality, and aptitude. Application of this provision might result in a personnel superior to that secured by application of the generally recognized and comparatively limited requirements related to credit earned in library science to the totals of six, twelve, eighteen, or twenty-four semester hours.

State, regional, and national standards which were in effect in 1941 may be studied from the point of view offered by Frances Lander Spain in her thesis, "School Library Standards."⁴ The date for the submission of her thesis allowed Mrs. Spain to include a reference to the *Evaluative Criteria* of the Cooperative Study of Secondary Schools; reference is not found to the American Library Association's *School Libraries for Today and Tomorrow* since the date of that publication was 1945. As a means of bringing up to date the information presented in Mrs. Spain's thesis, all states and all regional associations were asked to furnish copies of current standards for use in the preparation of this paper. Only one request for current standards was sent to each state or association, but as a result current standards, or statements regarding them, have been furnished by thirty-eight states and five regional associations. An examination of the material furnished makes it possible to determine certain trends

⁴Frances Lander Spain, "School Library Standards" (Master's thesis, University of Chicago, 1940).

which are apparent. These are reported here in general terms.

An analysis of the standards in effect in 1947 does not differ markedly from the analysis of those of 1941 which Mrs. Spain's thesis offers. The standards still show a similarity of design which leads to one of two or perhaps three conclusions: (1) The early standards were so well designed that departure therefrom has not been found to be desirable. (2) Those who have been responsible for the design of standards have lacked the courage to depart therefrom or have been blind to possibilities in a structure which would differ materially from the traditional concept. Perhaps a third is really the sound and fair conclusion—that some parts of the original design have been found good by the test of time, but that upon some phases of school library services more original thought might well be brought to bear. For instance, do job analyses really support the time-honored pattern which require six semester hours of preparation in librarianship for service in a small school, twelve hours for service in one of slightly larger enrollment, eighteen hours in another and twenty-four hours in another? (Is there any other phase of school service in which such confusion in preparation requirements exists?) Is *ownership* of library materials an important criterion; should not the importance of ownership be qualified by a consideration of *use*? (If such qualification were recognized, would it have been possible to find a book which represented the roster of a national college fraternity shelved in solemn acceptance in a library purporting to serve grades one to seven?) Can library service ever be offered on a short ration of one hour of the librarian's time per school day in any school situation whatsoever, particularly if the librarian is equipped with only six semester hours of preparation for this difficult assignment, to be performed, as it were, by remote control? If the early standards had recognized as desirable the centralization of processing and planning for small schools associated administratively which do not find it practical to employ full-time librarians, would such a plan have been generally accepted today? To employ a modern laconicism: "Could be."

Standards are being redesigned in some respects. The 1947 standards used in Florida represent a real departure from the traditional. They are designed for evaluation rather than measurement; first essentials are distinguished from desirables; they are to be applied for

one year only; they are subject to reshaping after a trial of one year.

There is some evidence to support a strong impression that there is a tendency to rely less and less upon formally stated standards, as such. Anna Clark Kennedy, School Library Supervisor for the state of New York, writes:

Our published standards for school libraries have not been revised or changed in many years. As a matter of fact, we have no complete statement of standards. Instead, the regulations of the Commissioner of Education, regarding the certification and employment of school librarians, the suggestions regarding the book collection in secondary schools, the work done by the Buildings and Grounds Divisions in approving library quarters in school buildings, and the school library report forms combine to serve in place of standards.

As a matter of practice in evaluating libraries in new schools (and in schools wishing accreditation by this Department) we are increasingly emphasizing the effective functioning of the library more than any element or elements of the library situations, such as book collection. Constantly we discuss the relation of the library and its program to the school program, the alertness and timeliness of the reading program, the achievements (and limitations) of the library teaching program, and the success (or inadequacy) of the plan for stimulating free reading.

During the past two years several of our schools, and several of our county or regional associations of school librarians have summarized their reports and compared themselves with the standards set up in *School Libraries for Today and Tomorrow*. We hope, of course, that this activity will eventually be carried on throughout the entire state. . . . So far as I know there is at present no movement or trend to make formal standards for elementary or secondary schools. Hence, there is no good reason for making formal standards for the libraries of those schools.⁵

A significant number of states (Florida, North Carolina) and associations (North Central Association) report that revision of standards is under way at the present time. Recognition of the Evaluative Criteria and reliance upon them as supplementary to quantitative standards are coming to be more and more general. Amounts recommended for expenditure for library materials are larger; allocation of full time for the librarian in schools of 200-500 enrollment is more commonly recommended. One trend in the structure of requirements in professional training is encouraging, i.e., the six semester

⁵Letters from Miss Kennedy to the author, dated June 9 and August 5, 1947.

hour qualification for librarianship in small schools is apparently disappearing from standards statements.

Statements of educational philosophy, school philosophy, or the philosophy of school library services are frequently found as introductory to a statement of standards, with the thought sometimes implied, sometimes expressed, that the school's library service has meaning only in terms of its integration with the general educational program. It has always been possible to find examples of such emphasis; a new stress is increasingly evident. A considered treatment of functions is given equal weight with the statement of standards in *School Libraries for Today and Tomorrow*. The standards of more than one state include the assertion that in establishing measurement or evaluation, the functioning of the school library should have equal weight with the measurement of countable specifics.

It may be that an entirely new approach to the selection of an instrument of evaluation is indicated. A county supervisor of instruction was recently asked to name an instrument appropriate for use in the evaluation of the school library. Without hesitation, she named the achievement test as taken by the individual pupil. Another supervisor, this time in a subject field, indicated that in her opinion evaluation could best be based on observation of the behavior of those served. "Is John careful not to throw paper on the school ground?" "Is there general disorder in the school assembly?" "Confronted with the good and the bad, and given free choice, does Mary choose the good, whether in books, radio programs, or courses of action?" It may be that school library service has not accepted its responsibility for achievement test results or rowdyism in the school assembly. It may be that the only dependable evaluation is the broad one for use in judging the whole educational program, with implications for library service developing as they will.

How adequately is the substance of communication represented in school library service? Bases for evaluation.—Commonly employed instruments of measurement and evaluation in this area rely pretty generally upon one approach: The library collection should be adequate to meet instructional needs which are related to the curriculum and to satisfy the individual's needs which arise from his own interests. A variation of this statement is found in almost every statement of standards. A commonly employed instrument of measure-

ment is a table of percentages which indicates relative representation of the Dewey Decimal classifications in the total book collection serving the school. It is assumed that such tables represent a translation of what may be a heterogeneous group of needs into a comparatively neat and orderly arrangement by Dewey classification. Perhaps this is as usable a device as any, although it would be interesting to know the steps by which the designers of standards arrived at an allocation of certain percentages to certain Dewey classifications.

It is in the matter of providing an acceptably reliable answer to the question of how adequately needs in communication are met that the greatest difficulty is encountered. The evaluator is inevitably thrown back upon the necessity of attempting to check the library collection according to the specific instructional needs related to the curriculum and the specific needs of the individual arising from his own interests. The evaluator easily may founder between the error of relying upon meaningless generalities on the one hand and that of giving undue emphasis to specifics on the other. It seems obvious that records of some sort are implied—a record of needs in communication satisfied through library service over a period of time and a record of needs which the library could not meet. An analysis of library loans and within-the-library use of materials is only half an answer. The inquiry into adequacy can be fully made only by including some recognition of the instances of known failure of library service to meet the demands put upon it. An examination of desiderata files maintained by the librarian and by each teacher may yield another measure. A record of reference needs reported as not adequately met as well as those which might be counted as satisfied is an important source of information. Periodic unhurried and critical examination of the library collection for coverage of instructional emphases and individual interests by a teacher-pupil committee constitutes another reliable basis for evaluation.

How adequately are all the media of communication represented in school library services? Bases for evaluation.—Some of the earliest statements of standards incorporated the idea of including more than books in the library collection. Within the past few years there has been unmistakable emphasis upon the inclusion of all media of communication, in so far as they might be appropriate.

In general, standards are quite specific in the instrument of meas-

urement which they provide for an examination of the stock of printed materials. "Five books per pupil," "three books per pupil," "twenty-four books in English literature," "fifteen periodicals for an enrollment of 300"—such measurement is a matter of easy count. Evaluation, however, is considerably more involved. The *Evaluative Criteria* calls for a count of books and periodicals, but an estimate of adequacy is also required. Provision is made for a "quality score" in periodicals, as well as for a total count, but for audio-visual aids an estimate of adequacy is the only requisite.

At the present time there must be reliance upon books, pamphlets, and other printed items for an approach to complete coverage of needs in communication; perhaps it can be predicted that there will always be a heavy reliance upon this medium, which is equally well adapted to brief or to detailed treatment of a subject, and which so easily can be produced as suitable and acceptable to individuals of all ages and degrees of receptiveness. It is also true that no other medium of communication can present so effectively the intangibles of character development and of appreciation. It is indeed the rare need in communication which has not been met in some fashion by the printed word. Provision for meeting the need through employment of this medium is a matter of budgetary provision and identification of material through examination or in one of the many tools for that purpose which have been developed through the years.

On the other hand, it might be ever so desirable to acquire a filmstrip which would show in kodachrome the interesting and distinctive features of life along a Louisiana bayou, but the fact is that no such filmstrip has been produced. Approach to complete coverage of instructional and individual needs by means of nonbook materials is simply not possible at the present time. Good filmstrips, good recordings are being developed and distributed, but production of materials in these and similar media is in its beginning, and consequently selection and acquisition present some problems quite different from those presented by books and other printed items which are available in abundance.

If a count of nonbook materials cannot yield a basis for evaluation because of the limited possibilities for acquisition, again the evaluator is thrown upon an examination of desirabilities as presented in desiderata files. A vigorous program in prepurchase teacher-librarian ex-

amination of audio-visual aids may yield a sound basis for evaluation of this phase of library service.

If it may be assumed that use and not ownership of materials is the important criterion, and investigation of another phase of library service generally slighted in statements of standards assumes great importance. This is the phase represented by activity in the utilization of the resources of other libraries, materials centers, film depositories, and related agencies of communication. This phase of service is not wholly neglected if the library acts only as a clearinghouse for information regarding availabilities; this is always possible, even with operation under a severely limited budget.

An examination of the quality of materials is inevitably related to an inquiry into adequacy, since inferiority negates effectiveness, and needs in communication are not really met by materials characterized by a lack of integrity of purpose, artistry of presentation, and out-of-date information.

How many of the catalytic agents of communication are represented? Bases for evaluation.—It is assumed that the East Baton Rouge factors list may be accepted as one enumeration of what might be called catalytic agents in the process of communication. Some of these factors lend themselves to measurement by count; for others a different basis for evaluation must be sought. Generally speaking, standards can be depended upon to furnish an instrument of measurement, or of tally, for factors in the first category: housing the library ("25 square feet per reader"), organization of library materials ("accessioned," "shelf list maintained," "Dewey classification applied," "card catalog maintained"), availability of the librarian for pupil guidance ("the librarian shall spend two hours of each school day in the library," "in schools of more than 500 enrollment there shall be a full-time librarian"), student independence ("12 lessons in the use of the library and its materials"), systematic provision for financial support ("50c per pupil," "\$1 per pupil"). It is assumed that the training for librarianship, a stipulation in practically all statements of standards, is regarded as a necessary concomitant to the librarian's ability to organize materials and to provide pupil guidance in their use.

Many of the latter, those factors which do not lend themselves to measurement by count, are represented in the *Evaluative Criteria*: "How adequate are the provisions for making the library really ac-

cessible to pupils?" "How adequately is the school staff aided in the effective use of the library?" "How effectively do teachers stimulate pupils to use library materials?" Such questions, taken from checklists supporting the criteria are designed to yield evidence which may constitute a basis for evaluation. In her "Evaluation of School Libraries"⁶ Frances Henne has enumerated library records of various kinds which yield evidence which may serve as a basis for evaluation. Library records have their significance only as bases for evaluation. The inclusiveness of Miss Henne's list, designed to show the relationship between records and evaluation, invests record making with the importance it can have when the recorder sees beyond his immediate writing.

To what degree is the substance of communication accepted and to what degree is the individual improved and enriched thereby? *Bases for evaluation.*—There is no communication if there is no reception of its substance. Evaluation of library service in terms of the behavior of the individuals using it is the one aspect of evaluation in which society in general is interested and only in those terms can the significance of library service be established. One approach to such evaluation is the recognition of those characteristics of personality which are desirable. While each educational group has its own description of these characteristics, the objectives as given in *Appraising and Recording Student Progress*⁷ (one of the Progressive Education Association publications) provide a representative sample: He thinks effectively, he works industriously, he is socially sensitive, and so on.

Is it possible to evaluate the school library as a communication agency in terms of the attainment of these characteristics? We do not know, but if such procedure is possible the school library cannot be evaluated in isolation, since the impacts, forces, and influences which account for straight thinking and fair action are many and complex. It would be difficult to submit evidence to the effect that as a result of school library service John no longer throws paper carelessly on the school grounds. John may follow such a desirable behavior pat-

⁶Frances Henne, "The Evaluation of School Libraries," in *The Library in General Education*, Forty-second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II (Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Pr., 1943), p.333-49.

⁷Eugene R. Smith, W. T. Tyler, and the Evaluation Staff, *Appraising and Recording Student Progress* (N.Y.: Harper, 1942).

tern today whereas he did not a year ago, but it is unlikely that any probing to establish reasons for the change could produce any specific or definitive statements.

While the evaluator cannot be sure of the part school library service has played in the characterization of any individual dependent upon its services, it is true that library service, as indistinguishable from the whole educational program, has its assignment as long as any individual dependent upon its services is mean or shiftless, blind to beauty, or willing to tolerate shabbiness of thought or performance.

While the school library loses its right to evaluation in isolation by its identification with the whole program of education, it is only through such identification that it may claim to function in its responsibility to the two essential processes of communication: The presentation of the substance of thought and its reception. It is in the recognition of the complex interrelation of many factors relating to these processes and in a recognition of their overwhelming importance that an isolated count of the circulation of library materials loses its significance. The individual's slow upward climb is the thing that counts. The question which may yield material for evaluation is not "Has John read a book?", but "Is John thinking straight?"

It has been said that the most effective school library is so subtle in its services that the pupil is hardly aware that he is being served. Like the Cheshire cat in *Alice in Wonderland*, it tends to fade into its background until one is aware only of its smile.

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Libraries for Youth in Other Countries

ALICE LOHRER

THIS PAPER is based upon my observations and experiences while traveling eleven weeks in Europe and must necessarily be a personal interpretation. Because I have the sincere conviction that no one should travel in Europe today unless he has some serious purpose in mind, I tried to avail myself of every opportunity to learn about libraries for youth, to find out how these youth centers fitted into the whole pattern of library development and service in each country I visited, to get a picture of the problems facing young people in Europe, and finally to discover, if possible, how we in America could contribute in a constructive way to the solution of some of these serious problems. I do not make any claim that I know all the answers or that I am an authority on European conditions as a result of my brief tour. My impressions are based on the opinions of the librarians and educators with whom I talked in each country and I do have some concrete suggestions that I hope may prove helpful to those concerned with the needs of youth throughout the world.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS

The first general observation I would make is that one cannot compare library service in Europe with that in the United States today. Libraries for youth in Europe are at about the same stage of development that ours were between 1890 and 1910. Libraries for children, and especially school libraries, are just beginning to show, or have not even shown, signs of emerging. Anyone familiar with the early growth of school libraries and public library service for children in the United States can detect that same pattern of evolution taking place in Europe today. This fact is an essential one to keep in mind, and it should make it easier for us to understand what is taking place and how we can aid and encourage those who are working against tremendous odds.

My second general observation is that libraries in Europe, unlike those in the United States, have been developed primarily for the

scholar, the student, and the research worker. The scholarly librarian is the recognized professional librarian, and popular public libraries as we know them are the exception rather than the rule in all but the largest cities of Europe. Public librarians and library assistants have to struggle for professional recognition and for a living wage; children's librarians are very few in number and have enjoyed even less professional prestige and recognition. Those in work with young people are doing some excellent pioneering and have laid the groundwork for a new era which is about to open; but professionally trained, full-time school librarians do not exist. There are teacher-librarians in England and in Denmark. But they, too, are just emerging as influential groups, especially in England; and all are self-trained enthusiasts trying to chart a course for the profession which will bring enrichment to the new educational program being launched.

My third general observation is that, with the exception of France and Germany, there are evidences in the countries I visited of an awakening interest and growth in libraries for youth, that some changes are taking place in the educational pattern of a few schools, and that some teachers are trying to break away from the traditional European method of teaching. These teachers and librarians want to try new methods, to know what we are doing in the United States, and to adapt some of our procedures and ideas to their situations; we should, therefore, be prepared to help them with any information or services that they would like to receive from us.

We have passed through the pioneer stages of trial and error in establishing libraries for children and young people. We have almost passed through the stage of being too concerned about details of organization and administration. European libraries for youth have not gone through these periods. This fact must be clearly understood if we are to give effective counsel to those in Europe who are looking to us for help.

For the purposes of discussion, I shall divide the countries I visited into three groups: The unoccupied countries of England and Switzerland; the once occupied countries of Denmark, Holland, Belgium, and France; and the now occupied country of Germany. I have made this division because the factor of occupation has had a significant effect upon the people and especially upon the youth of

Europe. For each group of countries I shall try to touch upon the status of youth libraries as I observed it, the training of the library personnel for these libraries, the types of books found in them, publishing problems and difficulties, and our role in giving guidance.

ENGLAND

In England, people in all walks of life seemed discouraged and depressed because of the deprivations and hardships they were continuing to endure two years after the end of the war, and this visitor to England was very conscious of this tension and worry. I was discouraged when I had finished talking with school and children's librarians in England, and later with members of the Library Association, concerning their training program of librarianship, for they were less advanced professionally than I had expected them to be. I am glad, however, that later I had an opportunity to return to England after my visits to other countries in Europe, and to re-evaluate my first impressions.

Public library service for children does exist in England, especially in the large cities; but special reading rooms for children, with children's librarians in full charge, are the exception rather than the rule. Where reading rooms are established, the pattern of organization and development is similar to that found here. However, the number of children's librarians is very small and the prestige and recognition which they receive professionally are slight. They are all self-trained because the training program for librarianship in England does not provide for specialization, as we know it, in this type of work.

Unlike the training program for librarianship in the colleges and universities of the United States the actual training for librarianship in Europe is handled by the library association of each country. Library schools are sponsored, directed, and staffed by the library associations, and, while university professors are sometimes asked to give lectures to the library students, the control of the library schools is in the hands of the library profession and not the university. Emphasis is still being given to the training for scholarly library work, and an apprentice period of training ranging from one to two years is required of everyone. The courses are taught by the practicing librarians and specialists in each field, and specialization for work

with children and young people and for school library service is not now possible except in rare instances. In each country that I visited I was told of plans to start courses within one or two years, and I received urgent requests for our courses of study, the course outlines, and our methods of teaching. Those who have been selected to offer these courses are themselves self-trained and want help and guidance. While they have had years of experience, they want to know about other and better methods and about the experimentations that are being carried on by the profession in this country.

In England, the well-known libraries in the famous schools are noted mainly, not for their present day library service to young people, but for their rare and famous collections of old books and manuscripts. There are, of course, other school libraries where the collections have been selected to serve the curricular needs of the modern school, but these are comparatively few in number. In spite of the general impressions given by the literature on the subject, school libraries are just beginning to emerge. Having a centralized library in the school has been given great impetus by a recent requirement in the Draft Building Regulations of the Ministry of Education for a "library room in all secondary school plans of whatever type." This will probably serve as a stimulus similar to the C. C. Certain Report on school libraries in 1920 in the United States.

School librarians in England, according to our terminology, are teacher-librarians and the major part of their time is spent in the classroom. They are self-trained and are working against tremendous odds, struggling to gain acceptance of the fact that school libraries have a significant role to play in the new educational program of England. They are working to secure financial support and recognition from the local educational authorities to establish school library quarters in all types of schools. They are opposing the efforts of the public library group in the library association to dominate and to assume responsibility for the development of school libraries. The public and children's librarians contend that as librarians they know more about and understand better how to set up and administer a school library, while the school librarians maintain that, as teachers with professional training, they have a better background for understanding the educational implications of school library work and can develop a better library program to meet the needs of young people.

"The ultimate decision in favor of an independent (School Library) Association probably reflects a general feeling that the school library is above all an instrument of education and an essential part of the equipment of a school, and that the school librarian is first and foremost a teacher."¹ (This should have a familiar ring to school and children's librarians in this country!)

Thus there was evidence that the school library movement has emerged in England. It is also rather certain that it will develop independently of the public library movement, and that at the present time the major emphasis is on how to set up a central library room in the school and how to sell the school library idea to teachers and administrators.

A further concern of English school librarians has to do with the training program. On my return to England I was invited to visit a special summer training class for teacher-librarians that had been organized by the Ministry of Education. I had an opportunity to share with them the impressions I had received from my visits to other libraries for youth on the Continent, and also to give them some understanding of the philosophy and the aims of school librarianship in the United States and of the progress we have made in this field. I urged them to consider seriously the recommendation of the School Library Association that the university departments, which are in charge of the training of teachers, assume the responsibility for training school librarians and for training teachers to use the school library effectively in their teaching. This arrangement would seem to be more advantageous than the present plans set up by the library association for the training of school librarians. To develop the full significance of this recommendation it would be necessary to discuss in detail the library training program in England, but that subject is outside the scope of this paper.

SWITZERLAND

The library provisions for youth in Switzerland are easier to discuss in some respects than those in England because there are no school libraries and only a few public and private libraries for children. The actual picture, however, is not quite this simple, for the pattern of library service for young people differs in each of the four

¹"Joint Hon. Secretaries' Report, 1946," *The School Librarian*, III (1947), 297.

major sections of Switzerland. The French-, the German-, the Italian-, and the Romansch-speaking sections differ not only in language, but in customs, education, and in library philosophy.

In the French-speaking section around Geneva and Lausanne, separate library reading and lending rooms for children in the public library have made their appearance within the last two or three years. This may not sound startling, but it is a big step forward and again shows evidence that a new era of library service to children is beginning in Europe.

To understand the slow development of libraries for youth on the Continent, one must realize that, in general, public libraries are not held in high regard by the people of Europe. It is contended that most people have their own libraries and do not need to depend upon a popular library for books, that scholarly and research libraries are provided for the serious student, and that only the poor and working classes need materials provided by a popular library. The popular library is thus thought of in terms of charity and philanthropy. However, because books are becoming more expensive and few of the middle-class people can afford to buy them, there is a growing need for the development of a new library program.

Lausanne was outstanding for having two libraries offering services for children, one the public library and the other a small subscription library created for children's use. The latter had a rather small collection of carefully chosen books—an open shelf collection—and children were given greater freedom for self-expression than I observed elsewhere in Switzerland. It was apparent that the children's librarian had been trained in child and social psychology. She was interested in why children read what they did and how they reacted to their reading. Careful records were kept of the questions children asked and of their remarks about the books they read. The children's reading room in the public library was comparatively new and was functioning effectively.

In the Italian and Romansch sections there were no evidences of libraries for youth. In Zurich, where the influence of Germany could be noted in the pattern of library service offered, a private institution with some financial help from the town provided all library service to the public. The main library and several branches had closed stacks with the children's books shelved among the adult collection.

No reading rooms are provided for adults or children, but special hours are set aside for children twice a week with a special librarian to help children select books from a printed catalog.

A library about, but not for, youth is found in Zurich at the headquarters of the Pro Juventute Foundation, a social service agency concerned with the welfare of mothers and children. Books about children and young people are here for the use of teachers, parents, and welfare workers throughout Switzerland. This agency also supports and sponsors Pestalozziadorf, the newly established children's village for war orphans of Europe, located just outside Trojen, Switzerland. It is hoped that when the village is completed it will have twenty-four houses, each house caring for sixteen children. There are already a Polish house, a Czechoslovakian house, a French house, a German house, and several others. The children are to live and to be educated in this village until they are sixteen years old, at which time they will return to their own countries. They are educated to know their native traditions, customs, and cultural heritage, and to speak their native language, though the school is experimenting with Esperanto as the common language of the village. The whole story of this village is a fascinating and wonderful one, but too long to tell here. It would be my hope that, in this village where new and modern educational experiments are taking place, libraries will be included as the program develops.

Present educational methods in Switzerland and in most of Europe require no school libraries. Memorization, for the purpose of passing examinations set by the state or by the university, dominates the teaching program just as it has for centuries in Europe. Some schools do have books in the classroom, but these are mainly for recreational reading, and only a very few teachers have become interested in new materials for teaching. There are almost no library books, such as we know them in the United States, available for use in the schools, and there has been little demand for them until recently.

A most interesting change is taking place in Switzerland in the publishing of books for children. Before the war, Swiss writers found a wider market for their books with French and German publishers, but the war closed both markets. Swiss publishers have now entered the field and are printing excellent books, especially for children and young people. They are to be highly commended for the quality of

printing, for the excellent illustrations, and for the textual and educational value of these new books, all of which compare favorably with our publications for youth. If this high quality of workmanship continues they will prove keen competitors in the European market of children's books. (Belgium is also doing some excellent publishing in the field of children's books, which is in contrast to the mediocre books appearing on the English market. In England, librarians and teachers alike were deploring the waste of precious paper on the publishing of trashy books for young people. Inferior books are flooding the market.)

DENMARK, HOLLAND, BELGIUM, AND FRANCE

Denmark, Holland, Belgium, and France, the once German-occupied countries, have libraries for youth, but the extent to which they are developed varies in each country. The most progressive type of library service for children, as I observed it, was in a community situated very near the heart of Copenhagen—the town of Frederiksberg. A modern library building with a separate children's department had been completed just before the outbreak of war. Plans had been finished for a similar library project in Copenhagen, but the war intervened, and as a result the public library of Copenhagen was housed in most unsatisfactory rooms and buildings. This condition does not mean, however, that the library service for children was inadequate. It was not. Although I was not able to visit other Scandinavian countries, I did talk to some of their librarians whom I met in other countries. After our discussions I was inclined to believe that all of the Scandinavian countries had developed library services for children and young people more nearly in line with our conceptions of them than can be found anywhere else in Europe.

In Frederiksberg the physical and administrative aspects of the children's department were modeled exactly after the pattern of the adult department, namely, a reading room and a separate lending department. The children have their own entrance, staircase, cloak room, and lavatories. The idea back of this type of planning is that the children later find the transition into the adult department much easier. I find the logic of this point debatable. This model library pattern has been duplicated in eleven of the schools of Frederiksberg and also serves as an example for all of Denmark. The public library

of Frederiksberg is thus assuming the responsibility for the establishment of school libraries, in contrast to the line of development in England.

Libraries for youth in Denmark have had a marked development because a library law passed in 1936 specifically mentions library work with children and young people as being important. Another law that would give public librarians the same status as teachers was expected to pass in 1947. The giving of recognition and prestige to public and children's librarians has made this development possible.

Holland provides various patterns of library service for children. The branch libraries of the public library of Amsterdam serve as community centers and provide a separate collection of books for children and young people. The librarians in Holland were interested in knowing how we were developing our young people's departments and what we considered the role of the public library in filling the book needs of youth. Lack of school libraries in Holland makes this aspect of public library service seem more important. However, much needs to be done, for at present the libraries seem more like lending rooms than inviting reading rooms.

At The Hague, the children's department, although very attractive in appearance, was only a lending department with no facilities for browsing or reading. Plans for experimenting with a reading room for children were being discussed and were hailed as a new and revolutionary project for the library.

The most outstanding and significant children's library that I observed in Holland was a private one located in Amsterdam not far from the public library. Miss Boerlage, the director of this library, was planning to retire in July. She received her library training in America and had developed in Holland a children's library embodying all of our finest qualities of service. The books were arranged on open shelves by large subject groupings. There were separate glass-partitioned reading rooms for the older and younger readers. A work room and a glass-partitioned office were provided for the director.

A very important phase of the children's work in this private library centered in the reading guidance program developed by Miss Boerlage. She has done a great deal of experimentation in book analysis. She has been responsible for training the few children's librarians to be found in that country. I have urged Miss Boerlage to put into writ-

ing what she told me about her methods of teaching reading guidance and book analysis, for it would be an outstanding contribution to the professional literature in this field. In this library were exhibited some of the "Treasure Chest" books from America that are so cherished by the children of Europe. ("Treasure Chest" books were also on exhibition in Copenhagen. These books were serving as a wonderful stimulus for learning English and for learning about the United States and our way of life. Some of the older books, however, were much too difficult for the European children to understand and the books with pictures were most appreciated.)

In Belgium the only real public library is in Antwerp. Separate children's rooms have just been opened in the main library and in some of the branches. In the main library the children's room has the only open shelf collection in the building and the room is open from 12 to 2 P.M. The books are arranged by three age levels: the books for small children are bound in black leather; those for the primary age are bound in dark blue leather; and those for older children are bound in red leather.

France, in my opinion, offered the least in the way of examples of library development for children as sponsored by the people themselves. In Paris there were American-inspired children's libraries; the most famous, the *Bibliothèque de L'Heure Joyeuse*, now under the direction of Mlle. Grunz, was started by two American women after the first World War. The other collection of American books for children is housed in the American Library in Paris. My general observation would be that the collection is well selected, but it is housed in a building that is hot in summer, cold in winter, musty smelling at all times, and locked, except when special requests are made.

The small library of the *L'Heure Joyeuse*, in the heart of old Paris, is truly a children's library. It is theirs, they love it and use it intelligently. It was a joy to observe and to listen to the activities carried on in the library. While I was there a teacher brought his class of boys to inspect an exhibit of their own handiwork that was on display—drawings with descriptive legends of places of interest in the historic Latin Quarter of Paris. The work was the culmination of weeks of library investigation on the part of each boy in order to find the facts, dates, and anecdotes about the place he had selected for this classroom project. The school had no library, but the teacher had been

inspired to try out new methods of teaching with the result that the children's library was the laboratory for the classroom. The children had been carefully taught to use the library intelligently and independently. They were thoroughly at home in it and were justly proud of what they had produced.

GERMANY (AMERICAN-OCCUPIED ZONE)

The last country to be described in this report of my impressions of libraries for youth in other countries is the American-occupied zone of Germany. It is a disheartening experience to observe conditions in Germany—not only because of what is or is not happening to the German people, but because of the difficulties of coping with a complex and rather grave situation.

In Germany I had excellent cooperation from the librarians and the educators in the sections through which I travelled. I have great respect for what they have accomplished, what they are trying to do, and what they would like to see done if they had the opportunity. I visited the Special Services Libraries for the American soldiers, the United States Information Centers (which provide American books for the German people), the German libraries which are being re-established by the Germans themselves, the German Youth Association club houses, the schools for resident American children, German schools for German children, a German normal school for boys, and a German prison camp library for German political prisoners. By asking questions of experienced people, by listening to information volunteered from all sources, and by observing conditions, practices, resources, materials, and personnel, I have gained at least a partial picture of library activities in Germany.

First of all, in order to understand what has taken place as far as libraries are concerned, it is necessary to realize that German cities are in an almost complete state of destruction. Library and school buildings have been destroyed by bombs or fire. The book collections had long ago been raided by the Nazis to eliminate the titles they considered unfit for German use. What was left has been screened by the Americans to remove Nazi propaganda. What remains can well be imagined.

In the second place, there is very little book publishing in Germany today, although there are several publishers who are permitted

by the Military Government to make books for children and for schools. Shortages of paper, other materials, and labor are serious obstacles, but the shortage of writers is even more grave.

In the third place, it is important to realize that many Germans can read English with comparative ease, especially if simple English-German dictionaries are available. The English language is not a barrier of communication to either the average middle-class adult or young person. The language difficulty, however, is a barrier to children, but here the medium of illustrations is a help. These points—lack of books, the hardships encountered in publishing new books, and the ability of the Germans to read English—are important factors to remember in view of the subsequent remarks.

America has sent to Europe, as a part of the total army program, an excellent collection of books which represent our way of life, our conceptions of democracy, and our form of government—books which deal with informational subjects of all types. There are, naturally, many other books which have no real significance except as escape literature. There are plenty of the informational books because they were sent over in great quantities to serve the wartime Army. The Army has returned to America, but the books are still there and should be placed at the disposal of the German people.

At the schools for American children in Germany, I found excellent collections of well-selected American texts, the basic education readers and supplementary readers, plus a basic library collection of recreational and informational books for children of various ages. At the time of my visit these books were being inventoried and boxed up to be stored at the close of school.

At the German Youth Association club houses which I saw (there may have been others which were different) no books or magazines were available, either in German or English. I was told that some of the young people did go to the Special Services Libraries to see the American books and periodicals provided for American soldiers. Many of the German youth were about the same age as our American soldiers and, although their reading interests probably were similar, it was actually against regulation to allow these youths to use the Special Services Libraries. The ingenuity of these American librarians in Germany in producing a pleasant, cheerful, and inviting atmosphere in which to read is something of which to be proud.

At the present time, the basic need is not books for American soldiers, but books for German youths. There are libraries, there are books, but there are too many for American use only.

What about the United States Information Centers? These Centers, which have been started by the State Department and taken over by the War Department in Germany and Austria, are patterned after those found in most countries today. They are open for the use of the German population, and they are used extensively. However, they are relatively few in number, compared to the need. Also, they serve primarily the adult interests.

So we find a situation where German youth are hungry for books; they want to read, they want to know about America, they want to know about democracy, and they want to know about the world outside Germany. We have American books over there but German young people do not have adequate opportunity to read them. It is apparent that Russia is availing herself of the opportunity, for Russian books, magazines, and newspapers were in the American occupied zone. Russia is using her interim time advantageously. Americans at home read about the re-education program in Germany and its effectiveness. It looks good in print. Actual evidence of accomplishment in Germany, as I observed it, is hard to discern. Everyone with whom I talked in Germany who was trying to carry on the program seemed frustrated and discouraged. They see the need, but find it hard to meet it.

What is the solution? Good common sense makes it obvious that our first concern should be to give good reading material and guidance to German children and young people. We should be making every effort to get democratic ideas and ideals into the minds of German youth. This can be done partly through books, magazines, and pictures. You and I believe this or we would not be librarians working with children and young people. We have many books over there. They have been selected with great care and wisdom. They should be made easily accessible through every library agency that we have already established in Germany. Here is a great opportunity for selling American democracy at no additional cost to the taxpayer.

Touching upon one other discouraging situation that I observed; I want to relate what I saw in a recently re-established children's room for German children. This room was shown to me by the

German librarians with great pride. My reaction was certainly not what they expected. I came away unhappy at what I saw because this reading room for children was being re-established along the same lines as it had been before the war. The room was located in a school, and it was open only a few hours a day when school was not in session. The women in charge were trained. The collection was small because children's books in German are hard to find today, the basic stock of library books having been burned as a result of bombings. The books were well selected and represented the main interests of elementary school children. To these features I take no exception because the librarians are doing the best they can with limited resources. The room was not attractive; it had the appearance of an ordinary classroom with rows of small tables and benches. It looked uncomfortable, but that in itself is not too significant.

What disturbed me was the fact that children were put on probation before they were allowed to use this reading room. Children who showed tendencies toward thumbing through books, looking at pictures, and dipping into books were not encouraged to return. The child who had serious intentions of reading and who was willing to remain in the room for one or two hours was the only one who was finally given a reader's card. No books circulated from the library. That regulation I could understand in light of the great shortage of books, but it was true also before the war. If a child did not finish a book, it was put aside for him and not given to anyone else to look at until that child was through.

The women in charge were trained in child psychology and reading guidance, though their conception differs from ours. The child was guided, not in terms of the child's own interests, but as the experts thought he should be. There seems to be little opportunity for children to experience the joy of exploratory reading. Yet this library serves as a model for children in the American occupied zone of Germany. Plans for an international youth library, outlined recently by Mrs. Jella Lepman, are an encouraging note, however.

I say frankly and openly that, from my observations and from those made by many others with whom I have talked, I am convinced that a well-planned and integrated program of education and library service is of prime importance in the rehabilitation of Germany. During the war crisis, specialists were called in by the government to help

solve the winning of the war; other specialists are now needed to help solve the even more important problem of winning the peace. Specialists in economics, in agriculture, in political science, in education, and in library activities who are fortified with a knowledge and a background of the German language, culture, history, and political and educational traditions are needed in Germany today.

BOOK COLLECTIONS

Before concluding this paper I want to state briefly that the books which are found in the libraries of Europe are what you would expect to find in any children's library. Many of the titles are very familiar, though they appear in a language other than English. In each country, two, three, four, and sometimes five languages are taught in the schools, and books in these languages are found on the shelves. The books in languages other than the native tongue are in simple form for beginners. There are very few American books in the original, but there are some in translation. Most of the books in English are English publications. The librarians would like to have our books if they could afford them, but they are overwhelmed by the vast number of titles we publish each year and also by the problem of making a wise selection.

On the whole, the present collections represent the basic books of the past. The lack of money, the lack of good new titles, the lack of writers and publishers of children's books result in a dearth of new material. This is one more reason why the "Treasure Chest" books have filled such an important gap in the reading needs and interests of the young people of Europe.

PROBLEMS CONFRONTING EUROPEAN YOUTH

One of the gravest problems facing leaders and parents of youth in the once-occupied countries is the task of helping the young people to become adjusted to normal living which lacks the exciting perils of war and occupation. New books are needed in Europe to help youth re-establish a moral and ethical code of living and to reaffirm religious beliefs and ideals. It is hard for young people to understand why it was right yesterday to steal, to lie, and to cheat the Germans in order to get food to eat or to save the life of a member of the family, but wrong today, now that the war is over, to go on

stealing, lying, and cheating for personal advantages. This is a problem faced in neither England nor in Switzerland, but it is found in all countries that have been occupied. A realistic and patient outlook is needed by parents, librarians, teachers, and by writers for young people in Europe. In Germany, this need is even greater. These young people have seen their ideals shattered and they are now seeking new leadership. They are disillusioned but not able to accept the bitter truth that the Germans themselves are to blame for the present plight of Germany and for the utter destruction of her cities, homes, and moral fibre. Germans still put the blame upon the enemies of Germany which surround her and not upon themselves.

Today German youth needs a new set of values based on a sense of security, a sense of family solidarity, and a sense of the ideals that make for wholesome living. They need to learn to play and to relax for the pure joy of playing and relaxing. They need effective American leadership. All that Mr. Lazarsfeld has said in his paper about the differences between the educational pattern of European and American youth was very pertinent and meaningful. We have only scratched the surface in our program of re-educating German youth for democratic living.

SUGGESTIONS FOR LIBRARIANS IN THE UNITED STATES

What specifically can we do? How can we aid school and children's librarians in Europe and what can we do about Germany? Some of the answers are simple but most of them are not.

In my opinion, the following types of activities are the kinds of things we could do that would produce some beneficial results:

1. We can familiarize and actively concern ourselves with library and educational conditions in Germany. We can try to encourage the employment of educational specialists in handling certain problems of German rehabilitation.
2. We can assume vigorously our share of responsibility in the numerous aspects of educational planning that are world-wide in scope and objectives.
3. We can encourage and motivate the translation of outstanding American books for children into other languages, and the translation of children's books of other countries into English.

4. We can compile each year a short and well-selected list of American books which describe the democratic way of life in our country and which can be used abroad by children.

5. We can encourage the practice of exchanging library workers between our country and European countries. Such exchanges would provide mutual benefits for the nations involved and would contribute to an understanding on the part of all school librarians of the conditions and practices of library work with children and young people in different countries.

6. We can send courses of study, class outlines, and suggested methods of library instruction to those school and children's librarians who are now faced with the problem of organizing a specialized curriculum for the training of library workers with youth in Europe, and who are interested in receiving material of this kind.

7. We can send our guides and manuals that contain information about the functions, organization, administration, and activities of libraries to youth, to school and children's librarians in each country in Europe where plans are being formulated to establish new libraries.

If some of these simple and obvious steps are taken, ways will be found, through cooperative planning and working together, to solve the more difficult tasks that face us abroad. It is a challenge we must not fail to meet.

The Frontiers of Library Service for Youth

FRANCES HENNE

NO ONE would deny the soundness and significance of the idea of library service for youth. On the other hand, few would deny that that service has reached a crucial period in its development where critical evaluation and vigorous planning have become essential if the fundamental objectives are to be achieved. In many ways this is a period of unrest for librarians working with children and young people. It is a healthy unrest; its very existence gives us an assurance and a hope that a smug complacency with the status quo could not provide. Certainly, if we are looking for trends, one of the most important would be this very concern on the part of many librarians working with youth to question, to evaluate, and above all to speculate. Questions, evaluations, and speculations, although essential, are not enough. Directions must be charted; these, of course, constitute no end in themselves. Even if we assume that we chart the right kind of directions, and I maintain emphatically that we can assume this, we must provide also the ideals, the force, the zeal, the spirit, the hard work, and, yes, the toughness, that form the dynamics which turn visions and plans into workable realities.

It is the purpose of this paper to report on what some of these directions or future trends for library service to youth are or might be. In a sense these are the frontiers toward which we are continuously moving. Since the speaker makes no claim to being either a Cassandra or an Athena, most of the material presented here has come from several sources—the papers presented at this Institute, the opinions voiced in the discussions that have followed the papers, the literature in the field of library work with youth, and the ideas and activities of scores of librarians all over the country with whom the speaker has had the privilege of talking shop. Although the confession is readily made that some personal opinions have been injected into

this paper, the content represents in the main a symposium of current beliefs of many librarians about the frontiers toward which we are now progressing.

CURRENT ATTITUDES

Before any description of these frontiers can be made, it first becomes necessary to present two important facets of the total picture: attitudes currently prevailing among librarians working with youth and some basic assumptions.

Three viewpoints can be found on the subject of the future of library service for youth: That of the person who looks into the future with a distinctly jaundiced eye; that of the person who thinks we have done well enough and the future will take care of itself, as has the past, in a sort of unwilling and undirected process of evolution; and that of the person who sees in librarianship for children and young people a vast and almost untouched social force that in many ways has no equal in its contribution to the growth of youth.

The viewpoint of the second group represents really the attitude of the bumbling people in our profession and can quickly be dismissed as invalid. Yet this attitude cannot be overlooked or discounted, for it misrepresents us and impedes our progress, and, unfortunately, too many librarians have it.

The theories of the first group cannot be rejected so easily. Their pronouncements serve as a tonic, and if we are brutally candid, we must admit that a good many of their statements are true. These are the people who say we have missed the boat in the audio-visual program; that we lack leadership; that we have failed miserably in selling the library idea to parents, to school administrators, to teachers; that public librarians haven't the remotest idea of what a modern school library represents; that school librarians haven't the remotest idea of the nature of public library service to youth; that we can never recruit enough people to provide the number of librarians that we need for children and young people; that the money and staff needed for effective library service for youth can never be obtained; that perhaps, after all, no librarian should do any more than hand out materials in a perfunctory and impersonal sort of way; that librarians seem to have an inescapable affinity with technical processes rather than with human beings. In fact, they often question

whether librarians are human beings! Their main theme, all along the line, presents the argument that we have had opportunities, that we have failed to take advantage of them, and that there is little evidence that we will ever change the tenor of our ways.

It is with the viewpoint of the third school of thought that I will discuss the future for library service to youth. Such alignment signifies that the delineation of the subject will be positive and even optimistic. It is important to note, however, that the members of this third group accept as truths many of the statements of the pessimists; it would be disastrous if they did not. They admit that many of the negative facts exist; they even believe that we are at a crossroad and that unless we take the right road in the future the whole library movement for youth could fail. The difference between the thinking of the two groups is essentially but one difference—the belief that *something can and will be done*. The librarians in the third group do not discount the warnings, for they recognize that the next few years will see whether the library for youth emerges as the active social agency described in its stated objectives, or becomes a static piece of machinery that contributes little to the cause of youth in a democratic society.

SOME BASIC ASSUMPTIONS

These three attitudes shape the background in which we work, and we can assume that the viewpoint of the third group forms the dominant one. In addition to being aware of these attitudes, for they materially affect the situation, we must also recognize four basic assumptions that underlie any consideration of developments in the field of library service to youth.

The first assumption is an elementary one—that library service for children and young people in this country is in such an uneven state of development that trends for the future must take on many varied characteristics. For some communities these activities will take the form of working toward, and I use the phrase “working toward” advisedly, the provision of a library service that many other communities have had for scores of years. In numerous situations, this means just getting a library, for none exists there now. In other cases, new and unexplored aspects of librarianship must be implemented. Resolved to their common denominator, these movements

represent planning and action; in other respects they are fifty years apart. Trends for the future thus do not necessarily have to take on the characteristics of new innovations; they will vary in a degree related to the development of library service in any given locale.

The second assumption that governs our thinking is that any planning for the future must be practical. Such an assumption does not outlaw the visions of the dreamer or the philosophies of the theorist, but there is no need to delude ourselves that in planning the library service of the future we can jump immediately from point *alpha* to point *omega*. Circumstances and experience have shown that we usually have to proceed one step at a time. This realization means that we must have the patience, the hard work, and the will to achieve our goals and that we must know from the beginning what those goals are and the plans for attaining them. This assumption deserves restatement. We cannot realize our long-range objectives overnight or, in some cases, even in decades, but we must know from the beginning (that is, *now*) what these objectives are and what the plans are for accomplishing them.

The third assumption is an important and strategic one. Whether we work in public libraries, in school libraries, in libraries in delinquent children's homes, in libraries in children's hospitals, or in any other kind of library for youth, our purposes are the same: We are working with children and young people; we are working with the materials of communication; and we wish to help children and young people develop intelligent and appreciative responses toward communication—whether those responses take the form of a joyousness that comes in reading a Shakespearean sonnet, a critical interpretation of an item in the daily newspaper, or any of scores of other examples that could be cited.

If we accept this assumption, and we invite failure if we do not, we must in our thinking and planning break away from the barriers of administrative organization, we must recognize the basic reality that we are all concerned with youth and communication, and we must formulate our plans in accordance with that principle. The frontiers thus represent what is best for youth in library service; and immediate planning considers only how this can be effected, regardless of traditional patterns of thought or action to which we have become accustomed.

This postulate may be illustrated by reference to the current discussions about the future of the children's department in the public library. Many librarians believe that the children's department is a vestigial remain; that libraries in elementary schools are the agencies best suited to do all library work with children, and that the children's department in the public library should be abandoned and all library service to children be transferred to the schools. Naturally, a great many other librarians do not subscribe to these beliefs. So far, most of the arguments on both sides have been characterized by a defensiveness of attitude, by an interpretation of the theories involved in terms only of current conditions (and frequently very localized conditions), by a concentration on administrative machinery, and by a general lack of objectivity. The really basic issues are too often ignored: that the problem has been presented by a sufficient number of people to warrant sincere consideration, that the evidence needed for objective analysis should be obtained (preferably from demonstration in actual situations), that all angles of the question should be reviewed and evaluated by all librarians working with children (preferably in groups and with other educators), and that both discussions and conclusions should be developed on the basis of what, ideally, will bring the most benefit to boys and girls, in both their present and their future development.

A fourth assumption has already been stressed in a previous paper—that historically we are a very young profession and we must not lose sight of this fact. The relative newness of our profession provides us with encouragement in the realization that we have achieved so much in such a short time and we can therefore presumably accomplish an equally great amount in the near future. Proud as we are and should be of the vast strides that library service for youth has taken in this country, we still are forced to admit that in many ways we have not progressed very much toward new frontiers in the past fifty years. If we use this assumption for purposes of complacency or as a rationale for hesitation and delay, it becomes dangerous; otherwise, it has salutary values and unquestionably affects any interpretation of library service to youth. We have reached too critical a period in the development of library service to children and young people in this country to delay; we now need decisive planning and vigorous group action for the future.

GOALS

Against this background of attitudes and assumptions, we can now note ten goals or developments in library-service to youth that will determine largely where our new frontiers will be. The presentation of these ten goals does not follow any systematic order, for each goal seems to have a value equal to the other; nor are the categories discrete. The list should not be considered a definitive one in any sense, and the fragmentary descriptions that follow each topic do not represent complete analyses of the different subjects.

The ten goals are as follows:

1. *Achieving an equalization of library opportunity for youth.*—In order to make the equalization of library opportunity for youth in this country a reality, we must first gather facts and then construct a planning program. This involves an intensive survey of existing library facilities of all kinds for boys and girls, an interpretation and evaluation of the data thus obtained, the formulation of a program whereby library service is made easily accessible to youth, and concerted action to put that plan into operation.

Equalization means providing library service where none exists now and improving conditions where we have only partial or inadequate service. The right to have free and easy access to books and other materials belongs to every child and young person, regardless of his race or the geographic and socioeconomic conditions in which he lives.

In planning for an equalization of library service we must critically evaluate situations where we think such service exists; for example, school libraries where students can get to the library only once a week do not represent service that is really accessible; and public libraries that reach only 20 per cent of the children, and these the best readers in the community, are not providing functional library service either.

From information that we now have we can describe some specifics that will be part of any equalization program. Among these are the following: a centralized library in every school (elementary, secondary, or otherwise) of 200 or more pupils; provision of some type of library service for youth in schools of smaller size; more than one library room in every school with 2000 or more pupils; adequate provision of library service and facilities for children and young peo-

ple during out-of-school hours; expanded programs of public library service to youth who have left school, and the adequate staff and facilities in all types of libraries that are essential in making libraries really accessible to youth.

2. *Implementing the objectives and standards of library service to youth.*—From the abundant literature in the field and from the innumerable examples of successful library practice we can conclude that we have formulated well the objectives and standards of library service to youth and that these are basically sound in principle. Our major difficulty seems to center around translating objectives and standards into programs of action and accomplished facts.

National, regional, and state standards exist for school libraries. Too few school libraries meet either the qualitative or quantitative recommendations of the national standards. National standards for library work with children in public libraries, and for library work with young people in public libraries, are now being formulated and will be published soon. Undoubtedly, too few libraries will measure up to these standards.

This process of implementation represents, then, the essential or fundamental element in our entire planning program. (Obviously, if objectives and standards were successfully implemented, many of the ten goals discussed here would automatically be obtained.) To describe ways by which this implementation can be successfully undertaken falls without the scope of this paper, a very fortunate fact for the writer. It is within the scope of this paper, however, to report that there seems to be a general consensus among librarians that our efforts must be concentrated first on this matter; that before we construct a new series of objectives and standards we must achieve those that we already have; that, although the part played by the individual librarian in trying to achieve these measures for his own situation is of inestimable value, the major impetus for implementing objectives and standards will probably come through leadership, through group planning and action, and through a concentration of effort that now seems lacking.

By working together, by planning together, and by talking together we can achieve our objectives and standards. The inquiring mind and the objective attitude should govern our decisions. We should not approach matters with a reaction of "we are not ready" or "we lack

money, or staff, or resources," and we should not confuse administrative problems with basic objectives because all administrative problems technically can be solved. Our attitudes should be "how good is this idea for children and young people?" and, if it is good and sound, "how best can we do it, and what can we do to bring it about?"

3. *Developing the interpretative services of library work with youth.*—Although the interpretative services of library work with youth generally rank highest in any listing of the values of such work, few librarians have been able to develop this part of the library program to the degree they consider to be desirable and many librarians have not developed it at all. With children and young people, interpretative services may take on the form of reading guidance, social guidance, teaching the use of the library and its resources, and a variety of other activities. (Interpretative services of a different but equally significant kind, of course, are provided to parents, teachers, and others, but are not discussed here.)

We have yet to describe precisely what all these interpretative functions should be or how they can best be achieved. We speak glibly of reading guidance and we recognize the integral worth of this activity, but we also know that few librarians do any reading guidance of a type that falls within any technical definition of that term.

As a materials or communication specialist, and such specialists we must have in a democratic society, the librarian working with children and young people meets a challenging and exciting opportunity that he has never before had. New activities are his, and new knowledge he must have if he is to perform them intelligently and constructively. A major responsibility of the librarian is to help children and young people to use, interpret, and evaluate materials. It is not just that children read or what they read, but it is also how they read (i.e., how they interpret, how they respond, why they read and with what results) that is important, and *how* has too often been neglected in the library program.

Our difficulty in performing these services to the extent that we would like comes primarily from insufficient staff and from archaic administrative machinery that does not release sufficient time for the librarian to work with children and young people. In the children's department in the public library, most of the work of the librarian

is crowded into a few rush hours after school and on Saturdays, and the load is too heavy for him at that particular time. Many schools have only part-time librarians, and even in those schools that have full-time librarians, there is all too often not enough time to spend with pupils and teachers. It is the belief of the speaker that one librarian can work profitably with no more than forty students during one class period.

The proverbial vicious circle prevails here: librarians can not carry on a real program of interpretative services without more staff, and yet it is, probably, only through a demonstration of the worth of the library program in this very area that a case can be vividly made for getting the clerical or professional help needed! At the same time it seems almost inconceivable that a profession that is so articulate about its worth and potentialities and about the reasons why these factors have not been achieved to their fullest, does not present a more united and vigorous front to bring about those conditions upon which the objectives of library service depend.

The conclusions seem to be these: to define precisely the scope and functions of the interpretative services of the library; to perform these functions more frequently than has been the case in the past; and, by means of demonstration, description, and planning, to work toward the achievement of the facilities that are needed for an effective program of interpretative services.

4. *Having each librarian a materials specialist and each library a materials center.*—Although it is probably true that this objective pertains more to school librarians because of their participation in curriculum planning, the basic principles involved are applicable to all types of library service for youth.

Having libraries as materials centers means that all kinds of materials of communication must be utilized—print, film, recordings, transcriptions, and other types. We must not only provide these materials for those people who need them in their work with youth, but we must also use them directly with youth in our libraries. Although it may be difficult for many librarians to admit that a child in the library may more profitably see a film or hear a recording than read a book, the time has come when that is frequently the case. No matter what the initial headaches may be (and the backaches) in administering and using audio-visual materials, we cannot afford at

this time to evade the provision and use of these materials. We are by training and by interest selectors, evaluators, and interpreters of all types of materials of communication.

Acting in the capacity of materials specialists brings still other responsibilities to the librarian, among them the acquisition of new kinds of knowledge about the content of materials (e.g., readability level, developmental values, etc.) which have been described in detail in other papers. And, even under the forbidding term of materials specialist, the librarian continues as always to be the person who brings to children and young people the great wealth that can be found in imaginative literature.

In the lives of thousands of children in this country the only books that they read are those selected and provided by librarians. This simple fact has an overarching structure of meaning of great significance. Librarians, in a sense, are arbiters of communication; to underestimate that responsibility is a grave and dangerous thing.

5. *Freeing librarians from technical processes.*—Many activities that we engage in daily as a matter of accepted practice can under no circumstances be described as true library work with children and young people: cataloging, book ordering, book preparation, book processing. Through exigencies of one kind or another, through historical and traditional patterns, librarians working with children and young people have been performing for too many years functions that no more logically belong to library service for youth than does the dispensing of popcorn at baseball games. Any librarian working with children and young people who catalogs a book or does any other similar technical process is guilty of something equivalent to malfeasance of office.

Who has not heard librarians berated for overzealous concern with technical processes and library routines? On the other hand, no matter how true this accusation may be, who has really done much (except in some city systems) to remove these routines from the librarian's load? The problem is complicated because the librarian cannot ignore these routines, since they help to produce the well-organized library which he must have to give effective service to children, young people, teachers, and parents. Great effort must now be made to release librarians from technical processes by means of the organization of local, state, or regional centralization services.

6. *Sharing the responsibility of developing a sound educational program for youth.*—To say that we must keep informed about and participate in the planning of the educational program for youth seems on the surface obvious and trite. Yet we have considerable evidence that librarians do not observe this principle.

We must not interpret these new developments in the light of our own and earlier educational experiences, and we must not have a derisive attitude toward schools of education and what they teach. We can claim neither dignity nor intelligence if we remain aloof from, or supercilious about, educational matters. When we hear current discussions about the community centered school, the extended school program, the 6-4-4 plan, and the *new* type of study hall library, we are all guilty of the most regrettable type of provincialism if we do not ask: "What is this movement, what are the advantages for boys and girls, what are the implications for library service to youth, where can we contribute?"

Too many librarians of this country have never admitted that a good school program provides for all the kinds of reading that a normal child should have. Too many librarians, both in schools and public libraries, have established that strange dichotomy of reading—reading for school work and reading for pleasure.

If we put ourselves beyond an understanding of or a concern with the school, and if we help in any way to perpetuate the many negative and traditional attitudes that American citizens have toward the school, we do our own profession a great disservice. Undoubtedly, much is wrong with many schools; but as citizens as well as librarians, we must contribute toward their improvement and we must understand the functions and characteristics of good education.

7. *Providing a critical evaluation and analysis of materials through regional or national materials centers.*—The individual librarian alone cannot select from the vast amount of materials produced those that are best suited to meet the needs, interests, and abilities of the child or adolescent. By now it seems inevitable that we establish on a comprehensive scale one national materials center or a coordinated group of regional materials centers where material produced for youth will be analyzed and evaluated critically. (One such center has now been started at the University of Chicago.) Upon the staff of these materials centers must fall many arduous but necessary respon-

sibilities: to determine what books and other materials are good and sound and appropriate for children and young people; to report the content of materials in terms of new concepts of use—subject values, development values, bibliotherapeutic values and many others; to prepare for librarians working with children and young people weekly, or even daily, bulletins that report on new materials of communication in terms of their uses and qualities (or their lack of such); and to develop many new bibliographic services (perhaps even cataloging and classification services) that are not available today.

That we need rigorous critical evaluation of material produced for children and young people has been stated many times. Yet, no agency today attacks vigorously and consistently the shoddy, the flimsy, the mediocre, or the ridiculous that can be found in hundreds of books on the market for children. To assume that this needed adverse criticism is taken care of indirectly and by implication by following a policy which advocates reviewing only the good books and ignoring completely the poor ones, evades the issue at stake.

Since few librarians have access to books for examination before purchase, since still fewer have access to them before publication date, and since most standard book selection aids contain incomplete information or appear too long after books have been printed, the materials centers must be the agencies upon which we must ultimately depend for a current information service that includes a critical evaluation and analysis of materials.

8. *Strengthening national, regional, and state planning.*—The need for such planning has been stated directly or implied in most of the preceding seven points, particularly in relation to the equalization of library service, the implementation of objectives and standards, and the centralization of technical processes on state, multiple county, or other bases.

The factors involved in planning cover a range of activities that are too numerous for mention here. Only a few can be stated: provision of a state school library supervisor in the department of education in every state, federal and state financial aid for the support of library service to children and young people in those areas that need financial assistance, and construction of long-range planning programs.

Although most planning on state and national bases will fall to the

direction of some governmental unit, the role to be played by local, state, and national professional organizations is also important and fundamental. Strong professional organizations are needed to interpret effectively our services and plans to librarians, teachers, administrators and others, and to participate in the construction and implementation of planning programs to achieve our objectives.

9. *Obtaining a sufficient number of able librarians.*—In order to achieve all the objectives we have formulated for library service to children and young people, we must have librarians who have both the personality and the education needed for such service. Two problems are involved: recruitment and professional education.

One of our most immediate needs is obtaining a sufficient number of the right kind of librarians for library work with children and young people. It is true that when we revitalize all of our programs of library service for youth and when we provide better salaries we will be in a more favorable position to attract people into the profession. On the other hand, we have a vast amount to offer now and to sell the idea of librarianship as a profession becomes of paramount importance; for, unless we get literally hundreds of able, intelligent, and likeable people into library service for youth, our whole program of service is jeopardized. We need particularly to recruit men for library work with youth; femininity has dominated too long the library work in this area.

Much remains to be done in educating librarians in such areas as child and adolescent psychology, new developments in educational methods, and reading. It is still possible today for students to be graduated from library schools without ever having had a course in any of these fields and to be employed in library positions involving work with youth. We should know more about the personal characteristics needed for work with youth so that we can select librarians who have these characteristics. Testing and effective counseling provide methods that have been virtually unexplored. The content of professional education for librarians working with children and young people remains essentially in a speculative state, but investigations in progress and current experimentation in library schools may soon provide an answer.

10. *Developing a systematic program of research.*—Thus far many, if not most, of the problems in the area of library work with youth

have not been explored objectively, and many principles, standards, and procedures commonly accepted and practiced have never been tested or evaluated. The need for further investigation in the fields of reading of children and young people and the materials of communication for youth has already been stressed. Systematic planning of research, plus an active program for carrying it out, effective communication of the results of investigations to librarians in service, and some centralization of the documents and materials of research are urgently needed.

Our frontiers are ever shifting and ever being pushed forward. We have reached one frontier now that can be described as the end of our initial pioneer period and the place where we are evaluating critically what we have done and what we should do. Our next frontier will be reached when we achieve such goals as have been reported in this paper and which reflect the current thinking of librarians working with youth. With these goals once obtained, it would be difficult to predict what frontiers would stretch before us—so boundless would be our opportunities.

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